This is a reproduction of a library book that was digitized by Google as part of an ongoing effort to preserve the information in books and make it universally accessible.

Google books

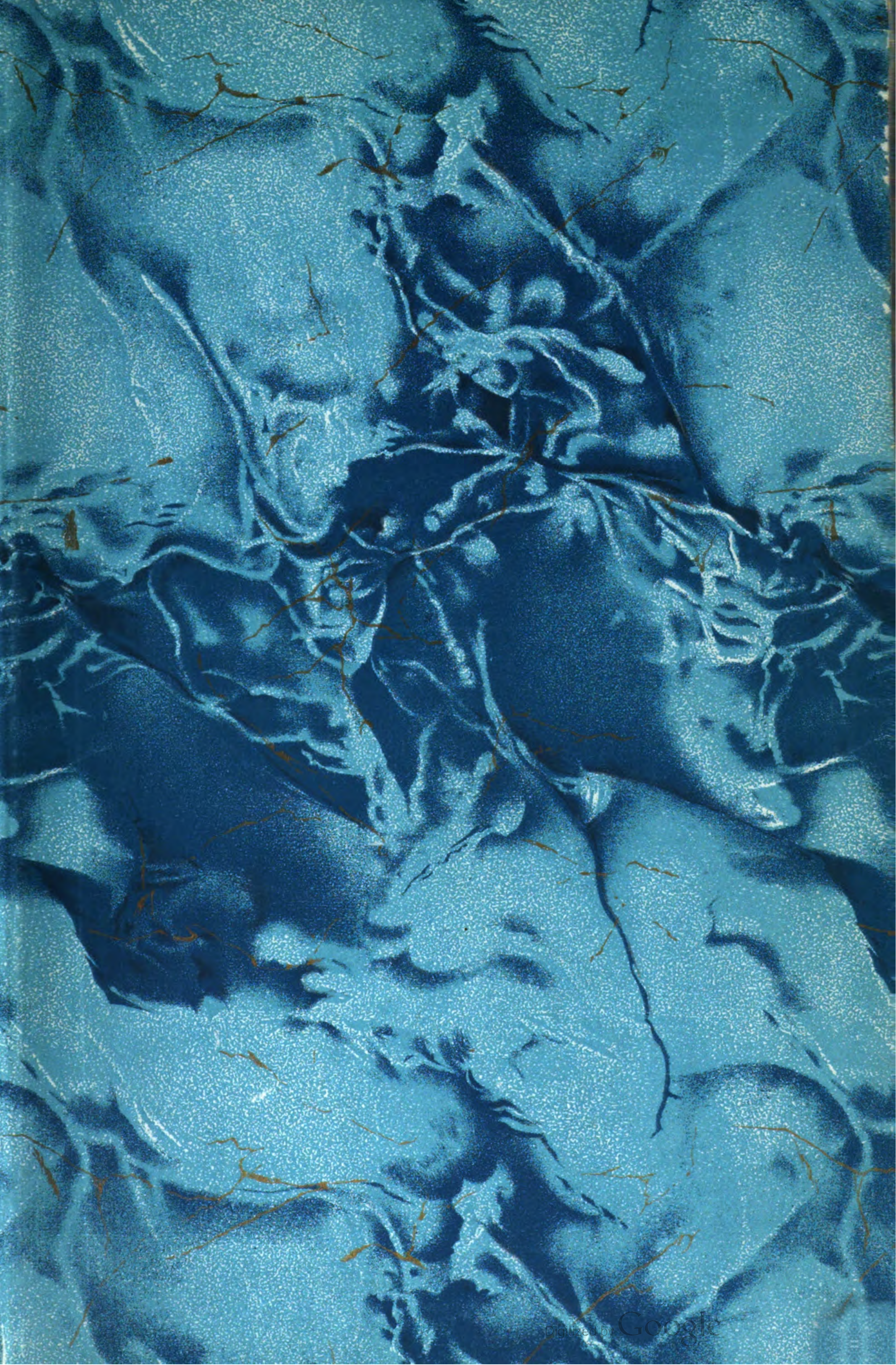
https://books.google.com

978.9 .C652 C.1
A history of New Mexic
Stanford University Libraries
3 6105 048 988 989

978.9
C652

STANFORD UNIVERSITY
LIBRARY

History
Syllabus Fund



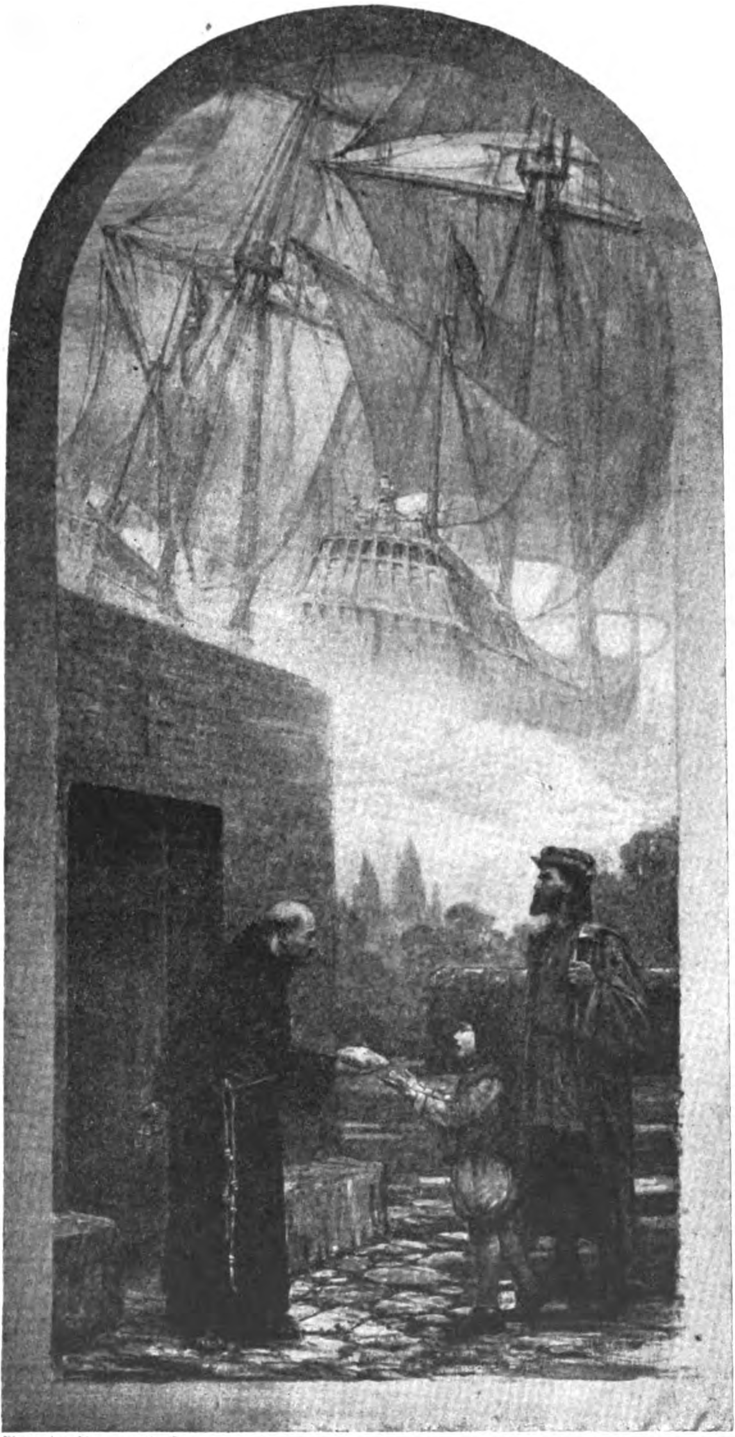


Photo by Museum Staff.

THE VISION OF COLUMBUS. MURAL PAINTING IN AUDITORIUM OF MUSEUM OF NEW MEXICO. PAINTING BY CARLOS VIERRA.

A HISTORY

OF

NEW MEXICO

BY

CHARLES F. COAN, Ph.D.

Author of "The Federal Indian Policy in the Pacific Northwest, 1849-1870"; "The County Boundaries of New Mexico." Member editorial board of the Southwestern Political Science Quarterly

---

Assisted by a Board of Advisory Editors

HISTORICAL AND BIOGRAPHICAL

VOLUME I

ILLUSTRATED

THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL SOCIETY, INC.
CHICAGO AND NEW YORK
1925

978.9
C652

COPYRIGHT, 1925
BY
THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL SOCIETY, INC.

356455

To

MY FATHER AND MOTHER

and

HERBERT EUGENE BOLTON

PREFATORY NOTE

In writing an introductory statement there is a certain pleasure in injecting the personal element which has been strictly ruled out in the text.

The writing of this work has grown out of specialization in Western American History at the University of California under the master of the subject, Herbert Eugene Bolton, and the teaching of New Mexico history during the past five years at the State University of New Mexico.

It has seemed to me that the close adherence to a plan which would give proper emphasis to the Indian, Spanish and American phases of New Mexico history was of paramount importance. I have, therefore, divided the space in proportion of two, three, three, between these subjects.

The bibliographies show my indebtedness to a large number of writers and to them I desire to give full credit. The greatest difficulty in writing a general account arises from the absence of detail studies of particular subjects. There are many monographs on topics of New Mexico history, but there are also many subjects that have not been so treated. Mr. Paul A. F. Walter was very kind in giving me access to the cuts of the State Museum for use as illustrations.

My chief helpers have been history students at the State University of New Mexico; Frank Reeve; Mary Wright Coan; and Wilma Shelton, University Librarian.

CHAS. F. COAN.

Albuquerque, New Mexico, March 21, 1925.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

THE LAND OF NEW MEXICO ---------------------------------- 1

CHAPTER II

THE CULTURE OF THE NEW MEXICO INDIANS -------------- 16

CHAPTER III

THE HISTORIC AND PREHISTORIC PUEBLOS ---------------- 45

CHAPTER IV

THE HISTORIC AND PREHISTORIC PUEBLOS (CONTINUED) --- 69

CHAPTER V

THE HISTORIC AND PREHISTORIC PUEBLOS (CONTINUED) --- 81

CHAPTER VI

THE HISTORIC AND PREHISTORIC PUEBLOS (CONTINUED) --- 96

CHAPTER VII

THE HISTORIC AND PREHISTORIC PUEBLOS (CONTINUED) --- 114

CHAPTER VIII

THE NOMADIC INDIANS OF NEW MEXICO ------------------ 125

CHAPTER IX

THE INDIAN POLICY OF SPAIN AND THE UNITED STATES ---- 134

CHAPTER X

EXPLORATION OF THE NORTHERN FRONTIER OF NEW SPAIN, 1528-1542 -------------------------------------- 149

CHAPTER XI

EXPLORATION AND COLONIZATION OF NEW MEXICO, 1545-1609 161

CHAPTER XII

NEW MEXICO, A FRONTIER MISSION FIELD, 1609-1680 ------ 182

CHAPTER XIII

THE PUEBLO REVOLT AND RECONQUEST, 1680-1707 --------- 199

CHAPTER XIV

SPANISH AND FRENCH RIVALRY, 1707-1767 --------------- 228

CHAPTER XV

SPANISH CONTROL OF THE TRANS-MISSISSIPPI WEST, 1767-1805 --- 248

CHAPTER XVI

LAST YEARS OF THE SPANISH REGIME, 1805-1821 ---------- 267

CHAPTER XVII

THE FUR TRADE, THE SANTA FE TRADE AND THE TEXAS EXPEDITIONS, 1821-1846 ------------------------ 301

CHAPTER XVIII

NEW MEXICO UNDER MEXICO, 1821-1846 ----------------- 317

CHAPTER XIX

NEW MEXICO UNDER UNITED STATES MILITARY GOVERNMENT, 1846-1851 -------------------------------- 333

CHAPTER XX

THE TERRITORY OF NEW MEXICO BEFORE THE CIVIL WAR, 1851-1861 ------------------------------------ 353

CHAPTER XXI

CAMPAIGNS OF THE CIVIL WAR IN NEW MEXICO, 1861-1865 -- 367

CHAPTER XXII

THE DEVELOPMENT OF NEW MEXICO, 1861-1878 381

CHAPTER XXIII

THE GOVERNMENT OF NEW MEXICO, 1878-1911 407

CHAPTER XXIV

RAILROADS, MINING AND POPULATION, 1879-1911 445

CHAPTER XXV

IRRIGATION, AGRICULTURE, STOCK RAISING AND NATIONAL FORESTS, 1879-1911 462

CHAPTER XXVI

SPANISH AND MEXICAN LAND GRANTS, 1860-1911 474

CHAPTER XXVII

SCHOOLS, CHURCHES AND NEWSPAPERS, 1879-1911 484

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE STATE OF NEW MEXICO, 1912-1925 496

CHAPTER XXIX

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OF NEW MEXICO, 1912-1925 511

CHAPTER XXX

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF NEW MEXICO, 1912-1925 ... 528

CHAPTER XXXI

THE COUNTIES ESTABLISHED BETWEEN 1846 AND 1878 541

CHAPTER XXXII

THE COUNTIES ESTABLISHED BETWEEN 1879 AND 1925 564

INDEX

Abeyta, Abram, II, 102.
Abiquiu, I, 50, 133, 138, 233, 240, 340, 543.
Abiquiu, Pueblo, I, 256; mission, 327.
Abo Arroy, I, 96, 102; Pueblo, 102, 104, 177, 191; mission, 191; highway, 514; pass, 514, 580.
Abo Mission (illustration), I, 185.
Abreu, Narciso M., II, 415.
Abreu, Ramon, I, 321, 326.
Abreu, Santiago, I, 259, 283, 317, 318, 319.
Acoma, I, 108, 112, 157; proposed military post, 169, 176, 194.
Acoma Indians, I, 80, 108, 110, 177, 181, 216, 223.
Acoma Mission, I, 112, 200.
Acoma Pueblo, I, 26; Indian name for, I, 109, 138, 168, 177, 178, 179, 187, 188, 205, 214, 223, 224, 264, 359; grant, 554.
Adams, W. F., I, 405.
Adamson, Amanda E., III, 63.
Aden, I, 557.
Agriculture, I, 12; Indian, 126; resources, 135; Indian, 165, 185, 227, 260, 415, 462, 471; statistics, 519; chief area for, 541, 571, 576.
Agricultural colleges, I, 399, 429, 484.
Agricultural experiment station, 558.
Agua de Lobo, schools, I, 486.
Agua Negra, schools, I, 485, 490.
Aguas Calientes, I, 161; province, 78.
Aguico Pueblo, I, 198.
Aguilar, Juan R., II, 225.
Aguilar, Pablo de, I, 179.
Alameda, I, 195, 286, 295, 324, 552, 578.
Alameda Pueblo, I, 96, 97, 98, 99, 188, 205, 210.
Alameda, San Carlos de, I, 282.
Alamillo, I, 208, 211.
Alamillo Mission, I, 191; of Santa Ana, 195.
Alamo National Forests, I, 433.
Alamo State Bank, I, 526.
Alamogordo, I, 449, 513. 520, 557, 572.
Alamogordo Basin, I, 572.
Alamogordo Creek, I, 570.
Alamogordo Irrigation Project, I, 518.
Alamogordo and Sacramento Mountain Railway, I, 448.
Alamogordo and Sacramento Railway, I, 449.
Alamosa Creek, I, 564.
Alamosa Valley, I, 139.
Alaniz, I, 150.
Alarcon, Martin de, I, 228.
Alarid, Jesus Maria, I, 320.
Alarid, Jose Rafael, I, 318.
Albemarle Mine, I, 453.
Albizu, Tomas de, I, 190.
Albo, Agapito, I, 318.
Albright, John G., I, 494; II, 285.
Albuquerque, I, 105, 226; churches, 261; population, 281, 285, 287, 295, 321; schools, 325, 347, 360, 372, 378, 394, 399, 405, 406, 411, 412, 446, 451, 461, 480; schools, 486, 487; churches, 492; newspapers, 494, 513, 520, 522; banks, 524, 544, 550, 552, 580.
Albuquerque Academy, I, 484.
Albuquerque Bank of Commerce, I, 525.
Albuquerque Business College, I, 533.
Albuquerque Churches (illustrations), I, 493.
Albuquerque College, I, 486.
Albuquerque Eastern Railway, I, 451.
Albuquerque Evening Herald, I, 494, 535.
Albuquerque High Schools (illustration), I, 531.
Albuquerque Indian School, I, 436.
Albuquerque in Early Days (illustration), I, 446.
Albuquerque, January 1, 1883 (illustration), I, 481.
Albuquerque Miner, I, 406.
Albuquerque Morning Journal, I, 535.
Albuquerque National Bank, I, 524.
Albuquerque Publishing Company, I, 494.
Albuquerque Pueblo, I, 284.
Albuquerque, Residence Section of (illustration), I, 337.
Albuquerque Review, I, 406.
Albuquerque, San Francisco de, I, 226.
Albuquerque and Cerrillos Coal Company, I, 515.
Alcaron, Hernando de, I, 154.
Alencaster, Joaquin del Real, I, 253, 267, 273, 276, 279, 283.
Alexander, J. E., III, 453.
Alhambra Mine, I, 457.
Allande, Pedro Maria de, I, 267, 279.
Allende, Ignacio, I, 269.
Allison Mission, I, 490.
Alluvial deposits, I, 2.
Almaden, I, 183.
Almanza, Nicolas de, I, 275.
Altar Valley, I, 229.
Altitude, I, 2.
Alvarado, I, 47.
Alvarado, Hernando de, I, 76, 157.
Alvarado, Pedro de, I, 152, 154.
Alvarez, Manuel, I, 347.
Alvarez, Sebastian, I, 325.
Amalgamated Copper Company, I, 456.
American Baptists Home Missionary Society, I, 364.
American Citizens, I, 140.
American Fuel Company, I, 458 .
American Fur Traders, I, 302.
American Gold Mining Company, I, 453.
American influences, I, 276.

American mine, I, 396, 453, 457.
American National Bank of Roswell, I, 524.
American National Bank of Tucumcari, I, 524.
American occupation, I, 131.
American plans of exploration, I, 274.
American population, I, 127.
American schools, I, 109.
American Turquoise Company, I, 452.
Americans prohibited from New Mexico, 1795, I, 254.
Andrews, William H., I, 408, 413, 414.
Angle, George K., II, 180.
Anglo-Americans, I, 276.
Angney, W. Z., I, 345.
Animal life, I, 9.
Animas Creek, I, 564.
Animas Mountains, I, 584.
Animas River, I, 4.
Annin, J. A., I, 405.
Antelope Plaines, I, 575.
Antelope Valley Irrigation Company, I, 519.
Anthony, I, 512.
Anton Chico, I, 546, 570.
Anza, Juan Bautista de, I, 205, 248; expedition of, 251, 252, 253, 255, 256, 257, 265.
Apache Indians, I, 47, 100, 120, 129, 136, 137, 176, 191, 202, 212, 217, 219, 226, 232, 234, 240, 242, 250, 260, 262, 263, 264, 284, 285, 327, 349, 350, 351, 360, 361, 368, 376, 377, 378, 389, 390, 397, 557.
Apache Pueblo, I, 176.
Apache Reservation, I, 579.
Apache Trail, I, 514.
Apache Treaty, I, 361.
Apache wars, I, 140; Spanish period, 285.
Apaszingan, Constitution of, I, 270.
Apple Orchard, Roswell (illustration), I, 521.
Apodaca, Juan Ruiz de, I, 270.
Aragon, Jose Manuel, I, 285, 585.
Aragon, Modesto, III, 85.
Arbizu, Jose de, I, 71.
Arce, Jose Maria de, I, 276.
Archæological Institute of America, I, 536.
Archæological investigations, I, 538.
Archæological Society of New Mexico, I, 536.
Archæology, I, 543.
Architecture, New Mexican, I, 30, 54.
Archuleta, Diego, I, 323, 336, 341.
Archuleta, Juan Andres, I, 320.
Archuleta, Juan de, I, 188, 191, 194.
Arctic-Alpine Zone, I, 13; native plants and animals, I, 13.
Area, I, 1.
Arellanes, Florencio, II, 428.
Arellano, I, 159.
Arellano, Tristan de, I, 156.
Argall, Philip H., II, 213.
Arguello, Fernando de, I, 182.
Argus, Carlsbad, I, 495.
Arid Southwest Soil Region, I, 4.
Arizona Copper Company, I, 448, 449.
Arizona County, I, 356, 383.
Arizona Territory, I, 1.
Arizona and New Mexico Railway, I, 448, 449, 560, 584.
Arizpe, I, 183.
Arkansas River, I, 3.
Armijo, Ambrosio, I, 320.
Armijo (Antonio) Expedition, I, 304.
Armijo, Lorenzo A., III, 55.
Armijo, Manuel, I, 303, 306, 311, 315, 317, 321, 323, 335, 482.
Armijo, Pablo E., III, 80.
Armijo, schools, I, 485.
Armstrong, John W., III, 367.
Army of the West, I, 334, 336.
Arny, W. F. M., I, 382.
Arrey, I, 564.
Arriba, schools, I, 487.
Arroyo del Chorro, I, 72.
Arroyo de Ojo de Agua, I, 59.
Arroyo Hondo Creek, I, 69.
Arroyo Seco, I, 46; schools. I, 486.
Art, New Mexico Indians, I, 30.
Art Collections, I, 535.
Artesia, school, I, 490, 569.
Artesian wells, I, 568.
Artists, I, 542.
Arvide, Martin de, I, 50, 78, 190.
Arze, Mauricio, I, 284.
Asay Valley, I, 165.
Ascarate, Nemecia, III, 144.
Asuncion, Juan de la, I, 152.
Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Railroad, I, 392, 445, 449, 511.
Athapascan linguistic stock, I, 26, 126.
Athapascan Navaho, I, 120.
Atkins, Herman W., II, 454.
Atlantic and Pacific Highway, I, 513.
Atlantic and Pacific Railroad, I, 446.
Atrisco, I, 297; schools, 485.
Atwood, Jefferson D., II, 311.
Austin, Charles P., III, 127.
Austin, Stephen F., I, 311.
Avalon Dam, I, 465.
Avalon Reservoir, I, 465.
Avila, Alonso Gil de, I, 191.
Awatobi, I, 188.
Axtell, Samuel B., I, 381, 382.
Ayala, Pedro de Avila y, I, 191.
Ayeta, I, 208.
Aztec, town of, I, 120, 130. 565.
Aztec Coal Company, I, 458.
Aztec mine, I, 394, 395, 515.
Aztec ruin, I, 120; excavations of, 120, 566.

Baca, Bartolome, I, 317, 318, 325, 328.
Baca (Bartolome) land grant, I, 480.
Baca, Elfego, I, 501.
Baca, Filadelfo C. de, III, 58.
Baca, F. T., I, 345.
Baca, Jesus Maria, I, 326.
Baca, Jose A., II, 435.
Baca, Jose Francisco, I, 318, 319.

Baca, Joseph S., II, 73.
Baca, Juan Antonio Cabesa de, I, 319, 320.
Baca, Justiniano, III, 345.
Baca, Luciano R., II, 265.
Baca, Manuel Antonio, I, 320.
Baca, M. A., I, 338.
Baca, Rafael, I, 285.
Baca, Roman A., III, 395.
Baca, Saturnino, II, 182.
Baca, Silvano, III, 110.
Bacchus, Elmer R., II, 294.
Bachechi, Arthur O., II, 265.
Bachechi, Oreste, II, 264.
Backus, E., I, 347.
Bado schools, I, 325.
Bailey, N. E., I, 443.
Bailhache, W. H., I, 494.
Baird, James, I, 277, 302, 310.
Baird, S. M., I, 355.
Bajada Ruin, I, 70.
Baker, Ben F., II, 409.
Baker, George W., II, 472.
Baker, L. S., I, 360.
Baker mine, I, 396.
Baldridge, J. C., II, 192.
Baldwin, Fred, III, 77.
Baldy Mountain, I, 394.
Baldy Peak, I, 562.
Balland, J. C., II, 266.
Ballard, C. L., I, 443.
Bandelier, I, 50, 83, 97, 102, 194.
Bandelier National Monument, I, 539, 579; illustration, 584.
Bank of Artesia, I, 525.
Bank of Capulin, I, 527.
Bank of Commerce of Taiban, I, 526.
Bank of Dedman, I, 527.
Bank of Deming, I, 525.
Bank of Des Moines, I, 527.
Bank of Hatch, I, 526.
Bank of Magdalena, I, 527.
Bank of Portales, I, 526.
Bankhead Highway, I, 513.
Banks, National, I, 522, 524.
Banks, I, 526.
Baptist Church, I, 364, 490, 492, 534, 548.
Baptist Hospital, Clovis, I, 535.
Baptist Orphans Home, Portales, I, 535.
Baptist schools, I, 490.
Barba, Diego Martin, I, 191.
Barelas School, I, 485.
Barker, Squire L., II, 201.
Barley, I, 471, 519.
Barrado, Hernando, I, 165.
Barreiro, Antonio, I, 214, 320, 325, 326.
Barreyro, Antonio, I, 88.
Barrionuevo, Francisco, I, 47, 78, 159.
Bartlett, Edward F., III, 254.
Bartlett, Frank G., II, 267.
Bartlett, survey, I, 357.
Bartolome Baca, land grant, I, 480.
Bases Organcias, I, 322.
Batlett-Conde agreement, I, 351.
Battalion, Mormon, I, 341.
Battle of Brazito, I, 340, 341.
Battle of Valverde, I, 371, 374.
Bautista, Pedro, I, 282.
Baylor, John R., I, 367.
Beall (Major), I, 349.
Bear Mountains, I, 556.
Beaubien, Carlos, I, 363, 482.
Beaubien, Charles, I, 338.
Beaubien, Narciso, I, 342.
Beauregard, Donald, I, 538.
Beaver, I, 301.
Becker, Adolph, II, 183.
Becker, Fred A., II, 493.
Becker, John, II, 188.
Becknell, William, Expedition of, I, 302, 309.
Beebe, George E., III, 438.
Belen, I, 96, 105, 196, 240; Presidio of, 229, 324; schools, 325; population of, 461, 511, 552, 554, 580.
"Belen Cut-off," I, 451.
Belen Mission, I, 327.
Beliefs, of Indiana, I, 62.
Bell, James L., II, 48.
Bell, Joseph, I, 458.
Bell and Company, I, 458.
Bell Ranch, I, 546, 548.
Benavides, Alonso de, I, 187.
Benavides, I, 47, 48, 50, 55, 67, 70, 77, 102, 104, 105, 111, 125, 128; mission, 191, 192, 195.
Benito, Francisco Gabriel de Olivares y, I, 262.
Bent, Charles, I, 333, 338, 341, 342.
Benton, Thomas, I, 336.
Berenda creek, I, 564.
Bernal de Castillo, I, 548.
Bernal, Juan, I, 71, 195, 202.
Bernalillo, I, 77, 94, 96, 176, 202, 218, 225, 511, 548, 550 578; population of, 460, 461; schools, 325, 485, 487, 490.
Bernalillo County, I, 324, 338, 345, 356, 385, 386, 389, 393, 417, 419, 420, 421, 541, 545, 548, 552, 573, 578; population of, 460; irrigation of, 470.
Bernalillo County Court House (illustration), I, 484.
Bernalillo County Documents, I, 285.
Bernalillo Pueblo, I, 157, 164.
Besse, Harriet W., II, 511.
Berringhaus, O. E., I, 538.
Bezemek, James, II, 220.
Bibliography, I, 13, 142, 328, 436.
Biernbaum, Esteban H., II, 221.
Big Hatchet Mountains, I, 2.
Bill, of Bursum, I, 141.
Bill Williams Fork, I, 177.
Billings, Gustav, I, 454.
Birchfield, Walter P., II, 246.
Bisbee, Frank, I, 395.
Black Diamond Mining Company, I, 458.
Black Hawk Mining District, I, 455, 457.
Black Mesa, I, 61, 91, 219; Pueblo, 220.
Black Mountains, I, 564.

Black Range Mountains, I, 2.
Black Range mining district, I, 396.
Black River, I, 569.
Black River Canal, I, 465.
Blackburn, Leslie, II, 124.
Blair, Francis, Jr., I, 338.
Blake, William P., II, 410.
Blanco, I, 102.
Blanco Canyon, I, 581.
Blanco Creek, I, 581.
Blanco, Manuel, I, 277.
Blanco Pueblo, I, 73.
Blanco Ruin, I, 72.
Bland, I, 453.
Bland Canyon, I, 84.
Blaney, Robert E., II, 466.
Bliss, C. R., I, 484.
Bliss, Zenas H., II, 42.
Block Coal Mine, I, 459.
Bloomfield, I, 565.
Bloomfield Ditch and Irrigation Company, I, 470.
Bloodgood, Ward, I, 529.
Blossburg, I, 459.
Blue Springs, I, 569.
Bluewater, I, 552.
Blumenschein, E. L., I, 538.
Blumner, Charles, I, 338.
Boards of County Commissioners, I, 431.
Board of Examining Surveyors, I, 503.
Board of Historical Service, I, 500.
Board of Home Missions of the Presbyterian Church, I, 486.
Board of Indian Commissioners, I, 141.
Board of Loan Commissioners, I, 503.
Board of Penitentiary Commissioners, I, 512.
Board of Public Lands, I, 422.
Board of Public Welfare, I, 503.
Board of Water Commissioners, I, 425, 505.
Boardman, Evelyn, II, 451.
Boggs. Thomas, III, 473.
Boaz, I, 567.
Boletin Popular, I, 406.
Bonanza Development Company, I, 456.
Bonavia, Bernardo, I, 279, 284.
Bonilla, Francisco Leyva de, I, 173; expedition of, 176.
Bonneville, B. L. E., I, 127, 360, 361.
Bonney, W. H., I, 391.
Borderer, I, 406.
Borradaile, John, I, 443.
Bosque, Fernando del, I, 183.
Bosque Redondo, I, 361; reservation, I, 130, 376, 377, 378, 390, 391, 397.
Botts, Clarence M., II, 35.
Botulph, Brother, II, 507.
Boule, Earl N., II, 133.
Boundaries, I. 1, 256, 271, 323, 324, 334, 335, 349, 350, 351, 353, 415, 482, 541, 545, 548, 552, 554, 557, 558, 560, 565, 566, 569, 570, 575, 578, 579, 581, 582, 584, 586.
Boundary survey commission, I, 348.
Boundary Treaties, I, 278.
Bourgade, Peter, I, 492.
Bowden, Aberdeen O., I, 531; III, 51.
Bowen, William E., II, 313.
Bowers, Henry M., II, 239.
Bowers, James S., II, 59.
Bowie, Alexander, I, 458.
Bowman, Frank D., III, 4.
Bowman, G. D., I, 405.
Bowman, Harry S., III, 369.
Bowman, William H., III, 324.
Bowman Bank and Trust Company, I, 526.
Boyd, D. R., I, 529.
Boyd, Nathan, I, 467.
Boykin, Sid J., III, 335.
Bradford, Frederick M., III, 9.
Bradshaw, John T., III, 93.
Brady, William, I, 391.
Brannin, William C., III, 461.
Bratton, Sam G., III, 295.
Bravo, Nicolas, I, 322.
Brazito, Battle of, I, 340, 341.
Brehmer, Harrison L., II, 127.
Brenham, Richard F., I, 312.
Brice, Charles R., III, 17.
Brice, C. R., I, 509.
Briceno, Diego de Penalosa, I, 182.
Brickley, Ernest M., III, 153.
Bridal Chamber Mine, I, 455.
Bridges, I, 512.
Bridges, Ivan G., III, 313.
Brinck, Fritz, III, 477.
Bristol, Warren, II, 405.
Brizeno, Diego de Penalosa, I, 194.
Bromide Mineral District, I, 453.
Bronson, Larry, I, 394.
Brook, Harold H., III, 39.
Brooks, W. T. H. (Major), I, 360.
Brooks (Lieut. Co.), I, 347.
Brown, Alexander F., III, 482.
Brown, Charles W., II, 329.
Brown, Cony T., II, 46.
Brown, J. C., I, 309.
Brown, R. T., I, 344.
Brown, Willis G., III, 449.
Broyles, J. N., I, 525.
Bruce, Allen E., II, 184.
Bryan, John L., III, 377.
Bryant, R. Graham, II, 456.
Bua, Nicolas, I, 202.
Bucher, W. H., I, 393.
Buckley, W. F., I, 446.
Buckman, I, 578.
Buckner, N. S., I, 404.
Buena Esperanza River, I, 180.
Buena Vista. schools, I, 486.
Buffalo, I, 176.
Buffalo Creek, I, 582.
Buffalo Highway, I, 513.
Building of New Mexico Missions (illustration), I, 585.
Bujac, E. de P., II, 341.
Bujac, James N., II, 485.

Bullard, John, I, 396, 398.
Bureau of Immigration, I, 424.
Bureau of Public Lands, I, 46.
Bureau of Roads and Forest Service, I, 513.
Burgess, Thomas H., III, 413.
Burgwin (Capt.), I, 343.
Burns, John, III, 409.
Burrage, A. C., I, 456.
Burro Mountains, I, 2, 559.
Burro Mountain Branch, Phelps Dodge Corporation, I, 514.
Burro Mountain Copper Company, I, 457.
Burro Mountain Junction, I, 560.
Burro Mountain Mining District, I, 455-456, 457.
Burro Mountain Reserve, I, 472.
Burton, Joel N., III, 437.
Burton, Solomon L., II, 173.
Bursum, Holm O., I, 413, 425, 496, 501; II, 16.
Bursum Bill, I, 141.
Bushman, Samuel M., II, 438.
Bustamante, Anastasio, I, 319, 320.
Bustamante, Juan Domingo de, I, 67, 228, 232. 236, 245.
Bustamente, Pedro de, I, 165.
Busto, Antonio Coban, I, 236.
Butt, Frank, II, 152.

Cabal, Juan, I, 192.
Caballero, Jose, I, 321, 322.
Cabezon, schools, I, 485.
Caborca, I, 229.
Cabrera, I, 259.
Cachupin, Tomas Velez, I, 228, 235, 241.
Caddoan Indians, I, 125.
Cahoon, Edward A., I, 530; III, 270.
Caia del Rio land grant, I, 81.
Caledonia Coal Company, I, 458, 459.
Caledonia Mine, I, 458.
Calhoun, James S., I, 345, 348, 349, 353, 355.
Calisteo Creek, I, 88.
Calisteo Pueblo, I, 233.
Calleja, Felix Maria, I, 270.
Calley, Ralph, III, 433.
Cameo, I, 577.
Cameron, Peter, II, 61.
Cami Valley, I, 165.
Camp Furlong, I, 575.
Camp Loring, I, 360.
Camp Monapah, I, 564.
Canada, I, 240, 321; schools, 325, 343.
Canada de Chimayo, I, 222.
Canada de Cochiti land grant, I, 480.
Canada de los Alamos land grant, I, 480.
Canada de los Teguas Pueblo, I, 177.
Canadian River, I, 3, 469, 558, 562, 571, 576, 586.
Canadian Valley, I, 2, 541, 545.
Canadian Zone, I, 12; native plants and animals 12.
Canal systems, I, 518.
Canalizo, Valentin, I, 322.
Canby, E. R. S., I, 362, 368, 375.
Candelaria, Ambrosio, II, 51.
Cannedy, Edgar P., III, 268.
Cano, Francisco del, I, 161.
Canon de Chama land grant, I, 480.
Cantara, I, 577, 581.
Cantonment Burgwin, I, 360.
Cantrell, William B., II, 430.
Canuelas (Lieutenant), I, 253.
Canyon de Alamo, I, 578.
Canyon de Chelly, I, 377.
Canyon de Cochiti, I, 578.
Canyons, I, 2.
Capital City Bank of Santa Fe, I, 527.
Capitan, I, 396, 449, 561.
Captives of Indians, I, 251.
Capulin, schools, I, 486, 571.
Capulin Mountain, I, 540, 571.
Capulin National Monument, I, 540, 571.
Caquima, I, 198.
Carabajal, Luis de, I, 163, 170, 211.
Caracas, I, 256.
Carbon City News, Gallup, I, 495.
Cardenas, Garcia Lopez de, I, 156.
Carey (Capt.), I, 377.
Carilla Mountains, I, 561.
Carleton, I, 375.
Carleton, James H., I, 370.
Carlsbad, I, 412, 448, 584; population of, 461, 463.
Carlsbad, banks, I, 524, 567, 569.
Carlsbad Canal, I, 517.
Carlsbad Cavern National Monument, I, 540.
Carlsbad Chamber of Commerce, I, 540.
Carlsbad Irrigation project, I, 516, 568, 569.
Carnue, I, 298.
Carnuel, I, 226.
Carrasco, Jose Manuel, I, 284.
Carrizozo, I, 396, 449.
Carrizozo, population of, I, 461.
Carrizozo, banks, I, 524, 561.
Carrizozo Creek, I, 571.
Carroon, Frank, I, 530.
Carson, Christopher ("Kit"), I, 303, 341, 363.
Carson, "Kit", (Illustration), I, 376, 377.
Carson National Forests, I, 433, 472, 520, 542, 543, 563.
Carter, Alonzo H., II, 479.
Carter, Edward T., III, 235.
Carter, Rich R., II, 404.
Carter, Rufus H., III, 285.
Carthage, I, 447.
Carthage Fuel Company, I, 515.
Casa Blanca, I, 108.
Casad, Humboldt, II, 395.
Casanes, Francisco de Jesus Maria, I, 80.
Casas Grandes, I, 183.
Casaus, Jesus M., III, 417.
Case, Fred S., III, 63.
Casper, William A., III, 68.
Cassidy, Daniel, III, 95.
Cassidy, Daniel J., Jr., III, 92.
Cassidy, Gerald, I, 538.
Castaneda, I, 76, 78, 160.
Castaneda of Coronado Expedition, I, 110.

Castillo, Alonso del, I, 150.
Castillo, Diego del, I, 192.
Castixes, I, 92.
Catalpa Mine, I, 458.
Catholic Church, I, 484, 486.
Catholic missionaries, I, 364.
Catholic schools, I, 490.
Catiti, Alonzo, I, 89.
Catron, J. W., I, 443.
Catron, Thomas B., I, 408, 412, 456, 500, 585.
Catron County, I, 123, 129, 139, 396, 498, 500, 556, 560, 585.
Cattle industry, I, 385, 390, 396; thieves, 391, 470, 516, 521.
Causes of Pueblo Revolt, I, 201.
Cave Dwellings, Gila National Monument (illustration), I, 124.
Cave sanctuaries, I, 124.
Cavern National Monument, I, 569.
Caves, I, 539.
Caxco, Mines of, I, 175.
Ceballos, Francisco de la Mora, I, 190.
Cebolleta, I, 128, 138, 340, 348; school, 490.
Cebolleta Mission, I, 239.
Cebollita, I, 114.
Cecill, John B., III, 222.
Celis, Don Alonso Victores, I, 242.
Celis, Manuel Rubi de, I, 318.
Cement, I, 458.
Census, I, 281.
Centerville, I, 571.
Central Avenue, Albuquerque (illustration), I, 553.
Central Bank of Albuquerque, I, 525.
Central mining district, I, 395, 455, 456.
Central Pacific Railroad, I, 392.
Centralists, I, 322.
Ceremonies, Indian, I, 40, 362.
Cerralvo, I, 162.
Cerrillos, I, 69.
Cerrillos Anthracite "A" No. 28 Mine, I, 459.
Cerrillos Anthracite "B" No 33 Mine, I, 459.
Cerrillos Bituminous No. 27 Mine, I, 459.
Cerrillos Mining District, I, 452.
Cerro Colorado, I, 93.
Cession treaty 1868, I, 139.
Cevallos, Bernardino D, I, 182.
Chacon, Fernando, I, 248, 252, 254.
Chacon, Mrs. Soledad C., III, 361.
Chaco Canyon, I, 122, 574.
Chaco Canyon National Monument, I, 539, 566.
Chaco Canyon ruins, I, 120.
Chaco River, I, 122, 565.
Chaffee, J. B., I, 482.
Chalbert, Jose, I, 273.
Chama, I, 543.
Chama River, I, 2, 50, 175, 518, 543.
Chama Valley, I, 133, 340, 511, 565.
Chama Valley ruins, I, 50; Indian names for, 51.
Chamberlain, J. F., I, 531.
Chamberlain, L. H., I, 443.
Chambers, Robert, I, 277.
Chambers, Samuel, I, 310.
Chamisal, I, 343.
Chamisal Mission, I, 490.
Chamita, I, 54.
Chamuscado, I, 102, 118, 163.
Chance Mine, I, 457.
Chandler, D. T., I, 348.
Chandler, Mildred, II, 453.
Chaparito, schools, I, 486.
Chapel San Miguel, I, 235.
Chapelle, P. L., I, 492.
Chapman, Edwin M., III, 321.
Chapman, James G., III, 250.
Chapman, John W., II, 401.
Chapman, Kenneth, I, 538.
Chapman, Heard, and Phillips, I, 396.
Chapuis, Jean, I, 235.
Charcas, I, 161.
Charitable Institutions, I, 428.
Charlton, Newton E., III, 411.
Charrie, Germain, II, 204.
Chase, Mason G., II, 440.
Chase, Peter M., II, 389.
Chase, Stanley M., II, 441.
Chato, I, 132.
Chaves County, I, 416, 418, 419, 420, 421, 582; irrigation, I, 470, 500, 560, 566, 577.
Chaves, Francisco Xavier, I, 317, 318.
Chaves (Ignacio), land grant, I, 480.
Chaves, J. Francisco, I, 387, 566.
Chaves, Jose, I, 317, 320, 323, 326.
Chaves, Mariano, I, 321, 323.
Chaves, population, I, 460, 463.
Chaves, Tomas, I, 323.
Chavez, Antonio Jose, I, 314.
Chavez, Lennis, II, 34.
Chavez, Fernando de, I, 203, 206.
Chavez, Jose Antonio, I, 280, 310, 317, 319.
Chavez, Salvador, I, 280.
Chavez, Usebio Duran y, I, 253.
Chemung Copper Company, I, 457.
Cherokee and Pittsburg Coal Company, I, 516.
Chettro Ketl, I, 122.
Chettro Ketl Pueblo, I, 539.
Chicago, Rock Island and El Paso Railway, I, 448, 449.
Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific Railway, I, 448, 576.
Chichilticale, I, 160.
Chihuahua, I, 175, 183, 229, 232, 324.
Chihuahua City, I, 251, 276.
Chihuahua Mission, I, 183.
Child Welfare Board, I, 503.
Chilili, I, 96, 101, 102, 195.
Chilili Arroyo, I, 101.
Chilili Pueblo, I, 26, 100, 191.
Chimayo school, I, 490.
Chinara Indians, I, 212.
Chino Copper Company, I, 456, 514, 515.
Chiricahua National Forests, I, 433, 472, 473.
Chisom, John S., I, 391.
Chivington (Major), I, 373.

Chloride Flat Mining District, I, 396, 455, 456.
Choice, C., I, 350.
Chouteau, August, I, 277.
Christ, Clarence H., II, 56.
Christian Brothers, I, 486, 487, 490.
Christianity accepted by Indians, I, 136.
Christianization of Indians, I, 188, 239.
Christmas, B. Asa, III, 241.
Chupadera Mesa, I, 556.
Church at Las Trampas (illustration), I, 241.
Church of San Felipe de Neri (illustration), I, 484.
Churches, first built in New Mexico, I, 176, 209.
Church organization, I, 250, 261, 282, 327, 362, 364, 402, 403, 404, 492, 493, 534.
Chusca Mountains, I, 2, 565.
Chusca River, I, 4.
Cibola River, I, 4.
Cibola, Seven Cities of, I, 116, 118, 152, 153, 156.
Cicuye (Pecos) Pueblo, I, 157.
Cienega, I, 197.
Cienega del Macho River, I, 561.
Cienega Pueblo, I, 69, 202.
Cieneguilla Creek, I, 571.
Cieneguilla Pueblo, I, 215.
Cimarron, I, 394, 406.
Cimarron, banks, I, 524, 562, 563.
Cimarron Canyon, I, 519.
Cimarron News and Press, I, 406.
Cimarron River, I, 3, 469, 562, 571.
Cimarron Valley Land and Irrigation Company, I, 519.
Cincinnati Mine, I, 457.
Cisneros, Alonzo Ximenez de, I, 92.
Citizens Bank of Aztec, I, 525.
Citizens Bank of Fort Sumner, I, 527.
Citizens National Bank of Roswell, I, 525.
Citizens National Bank of Alamogordo, I, 524.
Citizens National Bank of Albuquerque, I, 525.
Citizens State Bank of Mountainair, I, 526.
City Hall, East Las Vegas (illustration), I, 546.
City of Holy Faith, I, 544.
Civil War, I, 138, 353, 367; military organizations of, I, 368.
Civil War Indian campaigns, I, 376.
Clamorgan, Santiago, I, 276.
Clancy, Frank W., III, 440.
Clans, Pueblos divided into, I, 30.
Clapp, Lafayette, II, 297.
Clardy, William T., II, 382.
Cark, Douglass W., II, 494.
Clark, J. D., I, 529.
Clark, Luella S., II, 384.
Clark, (W. A.) Coal Mine, I, 459.
Clark Fuel Company, I, 459.
Clark and Lewis Expedition, I, 273.
Clarke, Clarence C., II, 253.
Carke, John J., II, 491.
Clarkville, I, 459.
Clay, James W., II, 261.
Clayton, G. Verner, III, 152.
Clayton, schools, I, 490, 513, 563, 571.
Clayton, banks, I, 524.
Clemente, Esteban, I, 101, 191.
Clements Family, III, 62.
Clements, Joseph H., III, 61.
Clever, C. P., I, 387.
Cliff dwellings, I, 58, 63, 124.
Cliff Ruins, I, 579.
Climate, I, 7.
Climax Mine, I, 459.
Clothier, R. W., I, 529.
Cloudcroft, I, 449.
Clouthier, Emilio J., II, 473.
Clovis, population of, I, 461, 511, 513, 552, 580, 581.
Clovis Court House (illustration), I, 583.
Clovis, Main Street in Early Days (illustration), I, 450.
Coahuaila, I, 269.
Coahuila, district of, I, 183.
Coahuila Province, I, 183, 199.
Coal, I, 417, 452, 458, 514, 515, 563, 566, 579.
Coal deposits, I, 6.
Coal mines, I, 562.
Coan, Charles F., III, 505.
Cochiti, I, 26, 108, 176, 253, 324.
Cochiti Canyon, I, 84, 211.
Cochiti Gold Mining Company, I, 453.
Cochiti Indians, I, 83, 86, 284.
Cochiti Mining District, I, 453.
Cochiti Pueblo, I, 69, 85, 88.
Cochiti Pueblo, Indian names for, I, 81, 172, 188, 204, 210, 214, 218, 219, 350, 359.
Cicriti Pueblo Grant, I, 579.
Cochran, John B., II, 65.
Coe, Louise H., II, 20.
Cohenour, Leo B., II, 136.
Coldallos, Governor, I, 233.
Coleman, Sherrard, I, 443.
Colfax, I, 451; population, 460.
Colfax County, I, 389, 393; mining, 394, 417, 420, 421, 451; coal mines, 460; population of, 460; irrigation development, 469, 470, 515, 516, 519, 541, 558, 562, 570.
Colfax County State Bank of Springer, I, 527.
Colfax County Stockman, Springer, I, 495.
College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, I, 488.
Colleges, agricultural, I, 399.
Collier, D. C., I, 74, 548.
Colmenares, Juan Bautista de Lomas y, I, 170.
Colmor, I, 558, 563.
Colly, Solomon, I, 272.
Colonization of New Mexico, I, 161.
Colorado, I, 102.
Colorado, Territory of, I, 1.
Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, I, 457, 459.
Colorado Mountains, I, 2.
Colorado River, I, 156, 177.
Colorado Ruin, I, 72.
Colorado to the Gulf Highway, I, 513.
Colorado Valley, I, 229.
Colorado & Southern Ry., I, 449, 451, 511, 571.
Columbus, I, 575

Columbus State Bank, I, 526.
Comanche Indians, I, 47, 77, 132, 135, 136, 231, 240, 249.
Comanche, Spanish Alliance with, I, 255, 260, 262, 273, 277, 284, 349, 351, 390.
Comanche Mining and Smelting Company, I, 456.
Comanche Pueblo, I, 233.
Commandant General, 1802-1821, I, 279.
Commerce, I, 258, 283, 305, 379.
Commerce of the Prairies, I, 305, 308.
Commercial Mine, I, 457.
Commercial relations, I, 311.
Commissioner of Indian affairs, I, 129.
Commissioner of Public Lands, I, 422, 472, 482.
Compton, Charles M., III, 372.
Concepcion, Francisco de la, I, 100.
Concepcion mission, I, 196.
Concha, Fernando de la, I, 248, 252, 258, 264.
Concha, Hernando de Urgate y la, I, 182.
Concho Indians, I, 212.
Conchos, I, 125.
Conchos River, I, 151, 169, 212.
Conchos Valley, I, 167, 170.
Conde, Alexo Garcia, I, 279, 281.
Conde, Garcia, I, 54, 268.
Cone Peak, I, 559.
Conejos Creek, I, 582.
Conejos River, I, 275.
Confidence Mine, I, 454, 515.
Congregational Church, I, 484, 534.
Congregational schools, I, 490.
Congressional districts, I, 498.
Connelly, Henry, I, 311, 347; (illustration), I, 381.
Connor, Wesley O., III, 336.
Conspiracies to expel United States Army, 1847, I, 342.
Constitution of 1812, I, 268, 270, 280, 281, 317, 318.
Constitution of 1824, I, 318, 319.
Constitution of 1836, I, 322.
Constitution of 1911, I, 505.
Constitution of Apatzingan, I, 270.
Constitution of New Mexico, I, 501.
Constitutional Convention of 1889, I, 410.
Convents, I, 364.
Conversion of Indians, I, 182.
Conway, Jay T., II, 515.
Conway, W. T., I, 529.
Cook, John F., III, 416.
Cook's Peak mining district, I, 396, 457.
Cooke, St. George, I, 309, 315, 335, 336, 339, 341, 352, 357.
Cooke, William G., I, 312.
Cook's Range, I, 575.
Cooney, James C., I, 396.
Cooney, Thomas F., III, 70.
Cooney Mine, I, 454.
Cooney mining district, I, 396.
Coons, James H., II, 196.
Cooper, Benjamin, expeditions of, I, 309, 310.
Cooper, Braxton, I, 310.
Coors, Henry G., Jr., II, 140.
Copper, I, 6, 168, 284, 305, 326, 452, 454, 456, 457, 458, 514.
Copper Hill District, I, 452.
Copper Hill Mining Company, I, 452.
Corbera, Francisco, I, 63.
Cordoba, Miguel de Peralta de la, I, 480.
Cordoba, Treaty of, I, 317.
Corn, I, 471, 519.
Corn, Robert L., III, 421.
Corn Dance at Cochiti (illustration), I, 87.
Corn Dance at San Ildefonso (illustration), I, 24.
Cornell, John, I, 405.
Cornish, Percy G., Jr., II, 149.
Corona, I, 561, 580.
Coronado, I, 118, 156.
Coronado, Francisco Vasquez, I, 152.
Coronado expedition, I, 47, 76, 78, 98, 155, 158, 159, 160.
Coronado expedition of Castaneda, I, 110.
Coronado National Forest, I, 520, 585.
Corrales, I, 285.
Corrales, schools, I, 485.
Corrumpa Creek, I, 571.
Cortes, I, 149, 151, 154.
Cortes, Manual, I, 342, 344.
Cosio, Antonio Valverde y, I, 228.
Costilla Miguel Hidalgo y, I, 269.
Costilla Irrigation project, I, 519.
Costilla Peak, I, 562.
Costilla, schools, I, 486.
Cotton, I, 471.
Council Districts, I, 421.
Counties, I, 541; subdivided, 356.
Counties created by Territorial Legislature in 1852, I, 387, 541.
County Agricultural Agents, I, 509.
County Legal Committees, I, 509.
Couriers, I, 254.
Courts: Supreme, district, probate, justice of peace, I, 254.
Court of Private Land Claims, I, 92, 93, 99, 107, 477.
Court House, Roswell (illustration), I, 567.
Couse, E.. I, 538.
Cowan, Harry, III, 265
Craig (Lieut. Col.), I, 348.
Crater Lake, I, 3.
Creamer, Carlos M., II, 226.
Creamer, Daniel A., II, 301.
Creek, I, 576.
Crescencio, Master Artist of San Ildefonso (illustration), I, 61.
Crescent Coal Company, I, 458.
Crile, Austin D., I, 529; III, 194.
Cristobal de Heredia, I, 171.
Cristobal, son of Onate, I, 180.
Crittenden, G. B., I, 367.
Croix, Teodoro de, I, 250, 251, 252, 254, 258, 261.

Crook, General, I, 132.
Crowder, Anthony W., III, 243.
Crowell, John B., III, 66.
Crown Point, Pueblo Bonito Boarding Schools, I, 534.
Cruz, Juan de la, I, 98, 160.
Cruzate, Domingo Jironza Petriz de, I, 48, 54, 77, 94, 199, 212, 213, 216.
Cryer, William H., II, 347.
Cuba, I, 578.
Cubero, I, 91, 108, 114, 225.
Cubero, Pedro Rodriguez, I, 108, 112, 119, 199, 223.
Cubero, schools, I, 485, 490.
Cuchillo Creek, I, 564.
Cuellar, Augustin de, I, 188.
Cuerbo, Francisco, I, 50.
Cuervo, I, 226, 570.
Cuesta Colorado Canyon, I, 83.
Culiacan, I, 118.
Culpepper, Mallory B., III, 227.
Cundayo, I, 67.
Cunningham, F. A., I, 347.
Curry, George, I, 407, 411, 443, 501.
Curry County, I, 419, 420; population of, 460; 499, 576, 577, 581.
Custodia de la Conversion de San Pablo, I, 187.
Custodio, I, 262.
Cutting, Bronson M., II, 488.
Cuyamungue, I, 196, 204.
Cuyamunque Pueblo, I, 65, 223.

Daeger, A. T., I, 534.
Dalies, Paul B., II, 287.
Dallam, Richard, I, 338.
Dame, W. E., I, 443.
Daniel, Denna C., III, 431.
Darden, Archie H., II, 444.
Dark Canyon, I, 569.
Datil, I, 556.
Datil National Forests, I, 433, 472, 520, 556.
Davis, Cecil C., II, 128.
Davis, S. B., Jr., I, 501.
Davis, W. W. H., I, 355.
Davis, William B., II, 421.
Dawes Institute, I, 433.
Dawson, I, 449.
Dawson Fuel Company, I, 459.
Dawson, John B., I, 459.
Dawson, John C., I, 390.
Dawson Railway Company, I, 448, 449, 451, 546.
Deadwood Mine, I, 515.
de Anza, Juan Bautista, I, 132.
de Baca, Ezequiel C., I, 496, 497.
de Baca, Filadelfo C., III, 58.
de Baca, Luis Maria Cabeza, I, 481.
De Baca County, I, 127, 139; irrigation, I, 470, 498, 499, 566.
Decker Margaret, I, 530.
De Courcey (Lieutenant), I, 335.
Dedman, William W., II, 372.
Deer Bead, painting by Julius Roshoven, I, 28.
Defiance Coal Company, I, 515.
Delgado, I, 98.
Delgado, Carlos, I, 238.
Delgado, Manual G. y, II, 418.
Delgado, Tomas P., III, 350.
De La Salle Institute, Las Vegas, I, 487, 490, 534.
De Lomas, I, 173.
DeLong, Arthur H., II, 451.
De Lozier, Crummel H., II, 424.
de Mendoza, Juan Dominguez, I, 125.
Deming, I, 123, 124, 131, 396, 418, 447, 449; schools, 487; 513, 557, 560.
Democrat, Albuquerque, I, 494.
Democrat Printing and Publishing Company, I, 494.
De Mun, Julius, I, 277.
Denver & Rio Grande Railroad, I, 392, 393, 445, 447, 449, 542, 543, 544.
Denver and Rio Grande Western Railroad, I, 511.
Desdemona Mine, I, 457.
Des Moines, I, 563.
De Sosa expeditions, written to the council, I, 173.
De Soto, I, 154.
De Vargas, I, 47, 50, 55, 63, 70, 71, 77, 86, 93, 112, 131, 201, 216, 219, 220, 224, 225, 236, 242.
De Vargas' Record on El Morro (illustration), I, 217.
Dexter, I, 568.
Diablo Range, I, 559.
Diamond Coal Company, I, 515.
Diaz, Melchior, I, 154.
Dickerman, Alfred G., III, 398.
Dientes Negros Indians, I, 212.
Difficulties between Texas and Mexico, I, 315.
Dillon, Richard C., II, 15.
Dills, Lucius, III, 368.
Dios, Francisco de la Madre de, I, 188.
Disciples of Christ churches, I, 492.
District courts, I, 354, 410.
Diver, F. C., III, 448.
Diversion dams, I, 518.
Dixie Overland Highway, I, 513.
Dixon, school, I, 490.
Doan, George P., I, 379.
Dobson, William R., III, 91.
Documents, early, I, 182, 190, 194, 253, 285, 328, 474.
Dodge, Henry L., I, 361, 364.
Dolan, J. J., I, 391.
Dolores, I, 326, 394, 452.
Dolores Mission, I, 200.
Dominguez-Escalante expedition, I, 256.
Dominguez, Francisco Athanasio, I, 256.
Dona Ana, I, 211, 347, 486.
Dona Ana County, I, 356, 383, 385, 386, 387, 393, 416, 418, 419, 420, 421, 457, 458; population of, I, 460; irrigation, I, 470, 516, 541, 557.
Donaldson, Samuel A., III, 86.

Donations for schools, I, 321.
Doniphan, A. W., I, 334, 338, 339.
Dorantes, Andres, I, 150, 152.
Doughty, James M., III, 427.
Douglass, Earl, II, 471.
Dow, Robert C., III, 373.
Dow, Walter A., II, 458.
Drake, E. A., I, 532.
Drake, I. H., III, 88.
Dredging, I, 452.
Drummer, The, painting by J. H. Sharp (illustration), I, 21.
Dryden, W. G., I, 311.
Duarte, Ignacio S., II, 268.
Dugan, Dan, I, 396.
Dumarest, Michael, II, 252.
Duncan, T., I, 360.
Dunlop, G. K., I, 492.
Dunn, Carlos P., III, 346.
Dunton, W. H., I, 538.
Duran, Augustin, I, 323, 342.
Duran, Jose T., II, 78.
Duran, Meliton P., III, 67.
Durango, I, 161.
Durango, Jesuit Missions of, I, 183.
Dutchman Mine, I, 459.
Dyer, J. L., I, 403.

Eagle Pass, I, 228.
Eagles' Nest Dam (illustration), I, 518, 519.
Early Scene of Main Street, Clovis (illustration), I, 450.
Early Settlers killed in Pueblo Revolt, I, 205.
East Las Vegas, schools, I, 487.
East Side Canal, I, 465, 468.
Eastern Apache Indians, I, 131, 138, 139, 140.
Eastern Railway Company, I, 451.
Easterwood, Oliver P., III, 400.
Eaton, Ethan W., III, 488.
Echeagaray, Manuel, I, 255.
Eckles, Isabel L., III, 299.
Eckles, Mary, I, 531.
Economic conditions, 1788, I, 257, 260, 301.
Economic development, 1912-1925, I, 511, 542.
Eddy, I, 448.
Eddy, C. B., I, 463.
Eddy, Charles B., I, 568.
Eddy County, I, 416, 420; population of, 460, 463; irrigation, 470, 560, 568, 582.
Eddy County Hospital, Carlsbad, I, 428.
Edgar, James, III, 136.
Edmondson (Major), I, 344.
Edmondson, Sidney M., III, 405.
Education, I, 345, 364, 399, 415, 494, 552.
Educational development, 1912-1925, I, 528.
Educational institutions, I, 429.
Edwards, Arthur M., III, 349.
Edwards, Keith W., III, 305.
Eguillon, Peter, I, 364.
Eight-Five Mine, I, 515.
Einhart, Carl M., III, 25.
El Barro ruins, I, 105.
El Camino Real, I, 512, 556, 557, 558, 563, 564.
El Cuartelejo, I, 50, 231.
Elections, I, 270, 281, 301, 317, 318, 319, 345, 346, 347, 354, 387, 408, 414, 496, 505.
Elephant Butte Dam, I, 466, 467, 468; (illustration), I, 517; 558, 564, 565.
Elephant Butte Reservoir, I, 564.
Elephant Butte Water Users' Association, I, 468.
Elguea, Francisco, I, 395.
Elguea, Francisco Manuel, I, 326.
Elguea, Manuel I, 284.
El Heraldo, I, 405.
Elida, I, 577.
Elizabethtown, I, 393, 394, 452, 563.
Elizabethtown Mining District, I, 515.
Elizaecochea, Martin de, I, 247.
Elkins, Stephen B., I, 387, 522.
Eller, Charles A., II, 227.
Ellermeyer, William F., II, 185.
El Llano, schools, I, 486.
El Morro, Inscription Rock, I, 190, 554.
El Morro national monument (illustration), I, 539.
El Nueva Mexicano, I, 495.
El Paso, population, I, 281, 315, 340, 348, 351, 466, 513 557.
El Paso district, I, 213.
El Paso Presidio, I, 209, 242.
El Paso and Northeastern Railway, I, 448, 449.
El Paso and Northwestern Railroad, I, 572.
El Paso and Rock Island Railway, I, 448, 449.
El Paso and Southwestern Railroad, I, 418, 448, 449, 560, 561, 575, 584.
El Prado, school, I, 490.
El Rio del Sacramento, I, 213.
El Rito Mission, I, 490.
El Rito ranch, I, 108.
El Rito River, I, 50, 51.
El Rito, schools, I, 485; Spanish American Normal School at, I, 544.
El Vado, I, 451.
El Vado village, I, 256.
Elwood, Robert, II, 338.
Embudo, I, 343, 486, 490, 542.
Emigrant routes, I, 352.
Emory Gap, I, 571.
Emory Survey, I, 359.
Empedradillo Arroyo, I, 102.
Empire Zinc Company, Hanover, I, 515.
Enchanted Mesa, I, 112.
Encinal, I, 108, 128.
Encinal Mission, I, 239.
Encino, I, 580.
Encino State Bank, I, 526.
Encomendero, I, 134.
Encomienda system, I, 134; grants of, I, 134, 170, 186.
England, Arthur L., II, 23.
Engle, I, 564.
Enloe, E. L., I, 531.
Enloe, Enoch L., II, 255.
Enterprise, Clayton, I, 495.

Enterprise Publishing Company, II, 362.
Entrance to Square Kiva, Western Socorro County (illustration), I, 123.
Episcopal Churches, I, 403, 405, 492, 535.
Escalante, I, 214.
Escalante, Felipe de, I, 165.
Escalante, Silvester Velez de, I, 256, 265.
Escalona, Juan de, I, 89.
Escalona, Luis de, I, 76, 160.
Escandon Luis de, I, 229.
Espanola, I, 486, 544.
Espejo, I, 94, 118, 168.
Espejo, Antonio de, I, 169.
Espeleta, Joseph de, I, 195.
Espinosa, Jose C., III, 57.
Espinosa, Tobias, II, 88.
Espiritu Santo, I, 192.
Esuibel, Diego, I, 321.
Esquibel, Jose, I, 322.
Esslinger, Jacie L., II, 326.
Estancia, I, 451, 580.
Estancia Savings Bank, I, 526.
Estancia Valley, I, 419, 580.
Estero Largo, I, 211.
Estevanico, I, 118.
Eulate, Juan, I, 182, 184.
Eureka Gulch, I, 453.
Eureka Mining District, I, 456, 457.
Evans, Murlin W., III, 209.
Evening Citizen, The, Albuquerque, I, 494.
Ewing, Charles E., III, 430.
Ewing, Patrick M., II, 522.
Excavations of Aztec, I, 120.
Excelsior Mine, I, 458.
Exchange Bank of Carrizozo, I, 527.
Exchange Bank of White Oaks, I, 526.
Executive Officers, I, 422; Territory, 432, 497, 501.
Expansion of New Spain, I, 161.
Expeditions, School of American Research, I, 122; Narvaez, 151, 153; Coronado, 158; Rodriguez, 166; DeSosa, Morlete, 173; Onate, 174, 175; Humana, Bonilla, 176; Otermin, 212; Juan Bautista de Anza, 251; Dominguez-Escalante, 149, 256, 257; Lewis and Clark, I, 273, 284, 303; William Becknell, 309; Benjamin Cooper, 309; 1841, Texan-Santa Fe, 310, 311; Jacob Snively, 315.
Experiment Station, agricultural, I, 558.
Exploration of New Mexico, I, 161; American plans of, 274, 352; by United States, 357.
Exploration of Northern Frontier of New Spain, I, 149.
Explorers, Spanish, I, 149.
Exports, 1804, I, 283.
Eyre, E. E., I, 370.
Eyre (Lieut. Gen.), I, 375.

Fages, Pedro, I, 251.
Fairweather, Charles, III, 240.
Fall, Albert B., I, 500.
Fall, A. B., I, 443.
Famine of 1695-1696, I, 223.
Faraon Apache Indians, I, 131, 132, 225, 242.
Farfan, Captain, I, 177.
Farias, Gomez, I, 319.
Farmers' Development Company, I, 469.
Farmers' Mutual Ditch Company, I, 470.
Farmers State Bank of Maxwell, I, 526.
Farmers State Bank of Mountainair, I, 526.
Farmers State Bank of Texico, I, 526.
Farmers and Merchants State Bank of Maxwell, I, 527.
Farmers and Merchants Bank of Nara Visa, I, 526.
Farmers and Stockmens Bank of Estancia, I, 526, 527.
Farming, I, 576, 577, 578, 580.
Farmington, population of, I, 461, 469, 490, 511, 513, 565, 566, 578.
Febre, Luis, I, 234.
Fede, Lawrence, I, 492.
Federal Indian School, I, 552.
Feil, Paul J., II, 191.
Fenlon, George L., II, 427.
Fergusson, H. B., I, 408, 412, 501.
Fernandez, Bartolome, I, 275, 280.
Fernandez Brothers, II, 470.
Fernandez de Taos School, I, 485.
Fernandez, Jose T., II, 470.
Fernandez, Rafael, I, 48.
Fero, David, I, 272.
Feuilli, Luis, I, 235.
Field, Floyd C., III, 466.
Field, Neill B., I, 458.
Fielder, Forrest, III, 53.
Fierro, I, 448.
Fierro Mining Sub-District, I, 456.
Fifth Territorial Assembly, I, 319.
Figueroa, Jose de, I, 195.
Figueredo, Roque de, I, 188.
Finances, I, 250, 258, 388.
Finlay, J. R., I, 514.
Fir, I, 10.
First church built in New Mexico, I, 176.
First government under United States, I, 339.
First Legislative Assembly of New Mexico territory, I, 338.
First National Bank of Alamogordo, I, 524.
First National Bank of Carlsbad, I, 524, 525.
First National Bank of Cimarron, I, 524.
First National Bank of Clayton, I, 525.
First National Bank of Clovis, I, 525.
First National Bank of Deming, I, 524, 525.
First National Bank, East Las Vegas (illustration), I 547.
First National Bank of Eddy, I, 524.
First National Bank of Ft. Sumner, I, 525.
First National Bank of Hope, I, 524.
First National Bank of Lake Arthur, I, 524.
First National Bank of Las Vegas, I, 525.
First National Bank of Lovington, I, 525.
First National Bank of Magdalena, I, 524, 525.

First National Bank of Mountainair, I, 525, 526.
First National Bank of Narra Visa, I, 526.
First National Bank of Roy, I, 526.
First National Bank of Santa Fe, I, 522.
First National Bank of Silver City, I, 524.
First National Bank of Taos, I, 526.
First National Bank of Texico, I, 524.
First New Mexican Reservoir and Irrigation Company, I, 465.
First State Bank of Alamogordo, I, 526, 527.
First State Bank of Cloudcroft, I, 526.
First State Bank of Grenville, I, 526.
First State Bank of Tatum, I, 527.
First State Bank of Taos, I, 526.
First State Bank and Trust Company of Roswell, I, 527.
First territorial assembly of New Mexico, I, 318.
First Territorial Bank of Lovington, I, 526.
Fish, I, 586.
Fisher, Edward M., II, 390.
Fisher, Frederic W., II, 276.
Fiske, Eugene W., III, 352.
Fitch, Charles B., II, 270.
Fitzgerald, E. H., I, 360.
Fletcher, John, I, 530.
Fletcher, Robert S., II, 508.
Floersheim, Irwin C., II, 436.
Florida Mountains, I, 575.
Florida Plains, I, 575.
Flour Mills, I, 522.
Folsom, I, 490, 571.
Ford, Willis, III, 176.
Forest reserves, I, 471, 545; service, 513.
Forrester, Henry, I, 405.
Fort, Tomlinson, III, 364.
Fort Bascom, I, 378, 399, 559.
Fort Bayard, I, 123.
Fort Bayard, United States Army Hospital, I, 560.
Fort Bliss, I, 360, 367, 375, 378.
Fort Buchanan, I, 360, 367.
Fort Conrad, I, 348.
Fort Craig, I, 360, 367, 368, 369, 370, 371, 372, 374, 378, 399.
Fort Cummings, I, 399.
Fort Defiance, I, 347, 360, 362.
Fort Fillmore, I, 348, 360, 367, 375.
Fort Garland, I, 360, 369.
Fort Lyon, I, 369.
Fort McLane, I, 377.
Fort Marcy, I, 338, 347, 360, 378, 399.
Fort McRae, I, 377, 378, 399.
Fort Selden, I, 399, 557.
Fort Stanton, I, 361, 367, 377, 378.
Fort Stanton Military Reservation, I, 561.
Fort Sumner, I, 376, 378, 577, 582.
Fort Thorn, I, 360, 370.
Fort Tularosa, I, 123.
Fort Union, I, 360, 369, 372, 378.
Fort Wingate, I, 377, 378, 399, 573; Military Reservation, 534, 574.
Foster, Lewis E., III, 228.
Founding of Santa Fe, I, 180.
Four Mile Creek, I, 569.
Four Minute Men, I, 509.
Fourth Territorial Assembly, I, 319.
Fowler, Jacob, I, 301.
Fox, Marion L., II, 93.
Foy, Thomas, II, 383.
Fra Cristobal Mountains, I, 564.
France, Rivalry between, I, 248.
Franciscan Hotel, Albuquerque (illustration), I, 549.
Franciscans, I, 111, 120, 128, 135, 152, 166, 179, 182, 183, 194, 218, 244, 246, 250, 327, 544.
Franklin (El Paso), I, 399.
Franklin mountains, I, 557.
Franks, Maggie F., II, 366.
Freeman, Thomas, I, 273.
Freitas, Nicolas de, I, 194.
French, I, 449, 562.
French Indian Policy, I, 248.
French Land and Irrigating Company, I, 469.
French settlement, I, 240.
French traders, I, 235.
French and Spanish Rivalry, I, 228.
Frenger, Numa C., II, 429.
Fresnillo, I, 161.
Frisbie, Evelyn F., II, 156.
Fritz, Emil, I, 391.
Fronteras Presidio, I, 242.
Frontier Mission Field, I, 182.
Frontier settlements, I, 271.
Frost, Max, I, 494.
Fruit, I, 10.
Fruitland, I, 565.
Fuenclara, I, 240.
Fullerton, Reese P., III, 355.
Funk, Zalaman E., III, 422.
Fur Trade, I, 271, 278, 284, 301, 304, 305, 307.

Gadsden Purchase, I, 1.
Gadsden treaty, I, 356, 358, 474.
Galicia, Nueva, I, 151.
Galisteo, I, 72, 132, 195.
Galisteo Basin, I, 165, 172, 176, 221.
Galisteo Creek, I, 69, 175.
Galisteo Pueblo, I, 70; Indian names for, I, 71, 206, 214, 225, 226, 241.
Galisteo River, I, 544.
Galisteo Valley; ruined Pueblos, I, 69, 70, 157.
Gallagher, John, III, 446.
Gallegos, A. A., II, 276.
Gallegos, Blas, II, 249.
Gallegos, Eufracio, I, 509.
Gallegos, Hernando, I, 165.
Gallegos, Ignacio, I, 281.
Gallegos, Joaquin V., III, 423.
Gallegos, Jose Manuel, I, 355, 362, 363, 387.
Gallegos, Juan, I, 160.
Gallegos, Manuel, I, 323.
Gallegos, Pedro Ignacio, I, 319.
Gallegos, Roman, II, 224.
Gallinas Bad Lands, I, 52.

Gallinas district, I, 50.
Gallinas Mountains, I, 556.
Gallup, I, 115, 513, 514, 565, 573, 574.
Galdo, Juan de, I, 191.
Gallup American Coal Company, I, 516.
Gallup Coal Company, I, 458.
Gallup Coal Fields, I, 458.
Gallup Fuel Company, I, 459.
Gallup Hospital, I, 428.
Gallup Southwestern Coal Company, I, 515.
Galton, William W., III, 262.
Galvez, Jose de, I, 250.
Gandert, Andres, III, 264.
Gandert, John, III, 107.
Garces, Francisco, I, 251, 265.
Garcia, I, 206.
Garcia, Alonso, I, 204.
Garcia, Alonzo, I, 100.
Garcia, Benito, I, 404.
Garcia, Espiridion, II, 489.
Garcia, Fabian, I, 529.
Garcia, Felix, I, 497.
Garcia, Ignacio Aragon y, II, 103.
Garcia, Juan, I, 404.
Garcia, Juan A., II, 73.
Garcia, Lagos, I, 284.
Garcia, lieutenant governor, I, 208.
Garcia, Manuel, I, 280.
Garcia, Miguel, I, 226.
Garcia, Natividad, II, 32.
Garcia, Pedro, I, 318.
Garcia, Rafael, I, 320.
Garduno, Joaquin L., II, 159.
Garduno, J. Lopez, II, 159.
Garfield, I, 557, 564.
Garibay, Pedro de, I, 269.
Garland, John, I, 360.
Garrett, Pat, I, 392.
Garrison, W. E., I, 529.
Gaspar Castano de Sosa, I, 183.
Gaypa, Pueblo, I, 175.
Gazette, Las Vegas, I, 495.
General Electric Company, I, 456.
Genizaros, I, 240, 265.
Georgetown, I, 395, 560.
Georgetown Mining District, I, 455, 457.
Geronimo, I, 92, 131.
Gervacio Nolan land grant, I, 480.
Giddings, Marsh, I, 381, 382, 387.
Gifford, James O., III, 496.
Gigante ranch, I, 108.
Gila, ruins of, I, 123, 129, 138.
Gila Basin, I, 2, 115, 123, 575.
Gila Forest Reserve, I, 129, 433.
Gila Monster, I, 10.
Gila National Forest, I, 472, 520, 559, 565, 586.
Gila National Monument, I, 540.
Gila River, I, 4, 152, 559, 584, 585.
Gila River Forest Reserve, I, 472.
Gila River in Grant County, I, 123.
Gila Valley, I, 123, 138, 153, 156, 229, 357, 585.
Gilchrist, James B., III, 428.
Gilenos, Apache, I, 120.
Gillenwater, William A., III, 485.
Gillinas River, I, 469.
Gilpin-Jackson-Doniphan campaign, I, 352.
Gilpin (Major), I, 340.
Gilpin, William, I, 369.
Ginunsewa Pueblo, Indian names for, I, 78.
Girls' Welfare Board, I, 503.
Glen-Woody Mining District, I, 452.
Glenn, Hugh, I, 301.
Glorieta, I, 70, 74, 485, 544.
Goats, I, 521.
Goelitz, Herman W., II, 64.
Goff, Emmett L., II, 420.
Gold, I, 168, 180, 306, 326, 395, 396, 419, 451, 452, 455, 456, 458, 514, 515.
Golden, I, 452.
Golden Cross and Eagle Company, I, 457.
Golden Gate, Albuquerque, I, 494.
Golden Mountains, I, 544.
Gongora, Gervasio Cruzat y, I, 228, 236.
Gonzales, Ambrosio, I, 404.
Gonzales, Jose, I, 321, 322; II, 279.
Gonzales, Miguel, I, 48.
Gonzales, Nasario, III, 452.
Goodall, Karl D., II, 238.
Goodall, Marie O., II, 239.
Goodart, Julius H., III, 190.
Goodnight Chisom Trail, I, 390.
Gorman, Samuel, I, 364.
Gordon (Major), I, 347.
Gordy, Jay C., III, 129.
Goss Military Institute, I, 431.
Government of New Spain, I, 270.
Government, Representative Local, I, 280.
Government, I, 344.
Government, territorial, I, 353.
Governors, 1707-1767, I, 228; last of Spanish, 280; 1767-1805, 248; 1767-1805, 252; 1805-1822, 267; 1818-1846; 1851-1861, 353; 1861-1878, 381; 1878-1911, 407; 1912-1925, 496.
Governors, Palace of the, I, 536.
Grady, banks, I, 524.
Grains, I, 12.
Grand Canyon of Colorado, I, 156.
Grandi, Caesar, III, 237.
Grandjean, Emil, II, 86.
Granillo, Luis, I, 218.
Gran Quivira, I, 96, 103, 538; National Monument, 539, 581.
Gran Quivira ruin, I, 102.
Gran Quivira, Tabira Mission, I, 125.
Grant, A. A., I, 494.
Grant, Angus A., II, 145.
Grant, Maxwell, I, 522.
Grant, I, 114; population, 460.
Grant County, I, 123, 385, 387, 389, 393, 416, 418, 419, 420, 421, 447, 455, 457, 460, 470, 500, 516, 541, 557, 559, 575.
Grant County Charity Hospital Silver City, I, 428.
Grant County Herald, I, 406.

Grants of Encomienda, I, 134.
Graphic mine, I, 396, 454, 457.
Grasses, Grama, Galleta, Buffalo, Porcupine and Sage Brush, I, 11.
Grayson, (C. F.) & Company, I, 456.
Grazing zone, I, 13.
Green, C. W., I, 46.
Green, David C., III, 412.
Green, J. W., I, 443.
Green, Thomas, I, 371.
Gregg, Josiah, I, 308, 310.
Gregory, Oscar L., III, 76.
Greiner, John, I, 355.
Greiner, Theodore S., I, 406.
Grenville, I, 571.
Griego, Anselmo, II, 449.
Griego, Pedro N., II, 450.
Griffin, W. W., I, 522.
Grose, Edwin L., II, 153.
Grossetete, Augustus F., II, 257.
Grouse Gulch, I, 394.
Grunsfeld, Alfred, II, 98.
Grunsfeld, Ivan, II, 126.
Grunsfeld, Miriam N., II, 99.
Guadalajara, Diego de, I, 192.
Guadalupe, I, 576.
Guadalupe Canyon, I, 77, 578.
Guadalupe County, I, 158, 417, 419, 420, 421, 461, 470, 500, 545, 570, 576, 577.
Guadalupe Hidalgo, I, 584.
Guadalupe Mission, I, 209.
Guadalupe Mountains, I, 2, 567, 569, 572.
Guadalupe, Nuestra Senora de, Mission of, I, 126.
Guadiana, I, 161.
Gualpi, I, 195.
Guanajuato, I, 161, 269.
Guebavi Mission, I, 201.
Guerrero, Vincente, I, 270, 319.
Guevavi Presidio, I, 242.
Gutierrez, Gregorio, III, 274.
Gutierrez, Jose, I, 325.
Gutierrez, Juan, I, 252.
Gutierrez, Jusepe, I, 173.
Guzman, I, 151.
Guzman, Luis de, I, 182.
Gypsum, I, 458.
Gypsum Hills, I, 572.

Hachita, I, 449; Mountains, 584.
Hackett, I, 97.
Hadley, Ozro A., III, 483.
Hagan, I, 451; coal mines, I, 511.
Hagerman, I, 568.
Hagerman, Herbert J., I, 407; Governor, 425.
Hagerman, James J., I, 448, 463, 465; III, 13.
Hagerty, C. T., I, 529.
Hale, John W., III, 311.
Haley, John A., III, 32.
Hall, B. M., I, 467.
Hall, James A., III, 330.
Hall, James J., III, 436.
Hall, W. O., I, 531.
Hall, Willard P., I, 338.
Halona Pueblo, I, 188, 191.
Hamilton, Richard F., II, 116.
Hamilton, William A., III, 445.
Hanlon, Lawrence C., II, 448.
Hanna, G. Clinton, III, 169.
Hanna, Richard H., I., 497, 501; III, 3.
Hanna, Samuel G., II, 84.
Hannett, Arthur T., I, 496; II, 3.
Hannett, James W., II, 408.
Hannum, Harry R., II, 324.
Hanover, I, 448.
Hanover Bessemer Iron and Copper Company, I, 515.
Hanover Mine, I, 395; Mining Sub-District, 456.
Harding County, I, 498, 500, 558, 559, 571, 586.
Hardscrabble mine, I, 396.
Harrington, David E., III, 288.
Harrington, Guy P., III, 340.
Harris, Ed W., III, 8.
Harris, Henry V., III, 403.
Harris, Joseph E. J., II, 155.
Harris, William H., III, 314.
Harrison, John W., II, 280.
Harsh, Ida A., III, 133.
Harsh, Philip H., III, 132.
Hartmann, Julius J., II, 273.
Harwood, Thomas, I, 403, 492.
Harwood, Mrs. Thomas, I, 486.
Harwood School, I, 486; Albuquerque, 490.
Hasatch, I, 108.
Hatch, Carl A., III, 331.
Hatch, Edward, I, 399.
Hatfield, Gideon D., III, 359.
Hawkins, W. A., I, 509.
Hawwikku, I, 118.
Hawwikku Pueblo, I, 156, 188, 190.
Hay, I, 471.
Haydon, Dawson W., II, 513.
Hayes, M. D., I, 395.
Haynie, George E., II, 402.
Hays, Domingo, II, 283.
Hazeldine, W. E., I, 494.
Headlight, Deming, I, 495.
Hearst Estate, I, 456.
Heath, John, I, 310.
Hebenstreit, Anton R., II, 148.
Hebron, I, 451.
Heck, John M., II, 505.
Heck, Mathias, III, 443.
Helen Rae Mine, I, 453.
Hendley, L. R., I, 342.
Hendricks, Marshall C., II, 412.
Herald, Albuquerque, I, 494.
Heredia, Alonso Pacheco de, I, 182.
Heringa, John J., III, 459.
Hermanas, I, 449, 575.
Hermosa Mining District, I, 454.
Hermosillo, I, 153.
Hern, Odon, II, 511.
Hernandez, Benigno C., I, 501, 509; II, 120.
Hernandez, Matias P., II, 394.

Herrera, Cristobal, I, 204.
Herrera, Jose Joaquin, I, 323.
Herrera, Sebastian, I, 203, 206.
Hersey, H. B., I, 443.
Hewett, I, 50.
Hewett, E. L., I, 536, 537, 538.
Hewitt, John Y., III, 11.
Heymann, Howard W., III, 444.
Hidalgo County, I, 470, 498, 500, 559, 575, 584.
Hidalgo, Guadalupe, Treaty of, I, 138, 140.
Hidalgo Revolution, I, 269.
Higgins, James, I, 304.
Higgins, Victor, I, 538.
Highfill, Mack, III, 457.
Highways, I, 512, 556, 557, 558, 561, 564, 565, 567, 569, 570, 572, 573, 575, 576, 578, 581, 582, 585.
Highways Transport Committee, I, 509.
Hill, C. L., I, 497.
Hill, D. S., I, 529.
Hilliard, Prince C., II, 207.
Hills of Pedernal, I, 2, 580.
Hillsboro, I, 396, 416, 461, 564.
Hineman, George, I, 391.
Hinkle, James F., I, 496, 497; III, 26.
Hinkle, Rolla R., III, 21.
Hinman, Orison C., III, 476.
Historic landmarks, I, 539; monuments, 539.
Historic and Prehistoric Pueblos, I, 69, 114; collections, 535.
Historical Society of New Mexico, I, 535, 537.
Hobson Mine, I, 457.
Hoch, Anna H., II, 138.
Hoch, David, II, 137.
Hockenhull, Andrew W., III, 478.
Hodges, Marion W., III, 139.
Hodgin, C. E., I, 485, 529.
Hoffman, Ripley C., II, 339.
Hogg, I, 256.
Holiday, James F., II, 117.
Holloman, Reed, II, 28.
Hollonawa, I, 119.
Holman, school, I, 490.
Holmes, T. H., I, 360.
Homestake mine, I, 396.
Hondo, I, 561, 567.
Hondo, Arroyo, I, 342.
Hondo Canyon, I, 89.
Hondo Reservoir, I, 466.
Hookland, Seibert S., II, 379.
Hope, I, 569.
Hopewell Mineral District, I, 453.
Hopi Indians, I, 165, 168, 176, 216, 226, 243.
Hopi Pueblos, I, 177, 180, 185, 188, 195, 205, 223, 224, 244, 265.
Hopi villages, I, 177.
Hornet Mine, I, 457.
Horse thieves, I, 260.
Horses, I, 521.
Hoskins, Joseph J., III, 248.
Hospitals, I, 402, 428, 535, 552.
Hot Springs, I, 447, 524, 543, 548, 564, 565.
Houghton, Joab, I, 338.
House of the Great Kiva, I, 122.
Howden, F. B., I, 535.
Howe, M. S., I, 348.
Howiri, I, 51.
Howland, G. W., I, 360.
Hubbell, Frank A., I, 500; II, 44.
Hubbell, Felipe, I, 501; II, 210.
Hubbell, J. Felipe, II, 210.
Hudson, Rose K., II, 165.
Hudsonian Zone, I, 13; native plants and animals, 13.
Hudspeth, Andrew H., III, 455.
Hueco Mountains, I, 572.
Huff, Raymond, III, 401.
Hughes, Pierce A., II, 439.
Hughes, Thomas, I, 494; II, 150.
Hull, E. E., III, 500.
Humana, Juan Gutierrez de, I, 173; expedition of, 176.
Hungo Pavi Pueblo ruin, I, 122.
Huning, Franz, I, 494; III, 473.
Hunter, George, I, 273.
Hunter, Godfrey, I, 453.
Hunters, Painting by Velino Shije, I, 44.
Hurley, I, 456; III, 129.
Hurley, Public School, III, 129.
Hurtado, Juan Paez, I, 199, 218, 224, 226, 228, 236, 241, 242.
Hutchason, J. S., I, 396.
Hyde Expedition, I, 122.
Hydraulic Mining, I, 452.

Ibarra, Franciso de, I, 161.
Ibarra, Diego de, I, 161.
Ibarra, Juan de, I, 166.
Ignacio Chaves land grant, I, 480.
Iguala, Plan of, I, 271.
Ilfeld, Charles, I, 482.
Illinski, A. X., I, 532.
Illiteracy, I, 490, 528.
Immaculate Conception Academy, I, 490.
Immaculate Conception Church, Albuquerque, I, 492.
Imports, 1804, I, 283.
Independence, I, 270.
Indian Agent, I, 349.
Indian campaigns, I, 375.
Indian Commissioners, Board of, I, 141.
Indian Grants, I, 579.
Indian Missions, I, 235.
Indian Pictographs on Rock, Santa Fe National Forest, I, 23.
Indian policy of Spain, I, 134.
Indian Policy of United States, I, 134, 137.
Indian Pueblos, I, 543.
Indian reservations, I, 127, 129, 391, 542, 545, 554.
Indian Territory, I, 137.

Indian treaties, I, 127, 130, 139, 309, 327, 340, 348, 360, 361.

Indian Wars, I, 183.

Indians: beliefs of, I, 18; language of the New Mexican, 26; art and architecture of, 30; weaving, 31; pottery, 33; architecture, 35; furniture, 39; cooking pits and ovens, 39; ceremonies, 40; sand painting, 40; games of, 42; Ute, Comanche, Apache, 47; names for Laguna, 106; Acoma, 108, 110; Jemez, 112; Caddoan, 125; Jumano, 125; Manso, 125; Nomadic, 125; request missionaries, 125; agriculture, 126; treaty with Americans, 127; Apache, 128; Southern Apache, 129; Mescalero Apache, 129; tribal range, 130; Eastern Apache, 131; Faraon Apache, 131; Jicarilla, Faraon, Lipan, Llaneros, Mescalero, Puebloe, 131; Faraon Apache, 132; Comanche, 132; Lipan Apache, 132; Mescalero Apache, 132; Ute, 132; legal status in sixteenth century, 135; Ute, Comanche, 135; Pueblo, Navaho, Apache, Ute, Comanche, 136; christianized missions, 136; Christianity accepted by, 136; Ute, Eastern Apache, Southern Apache, 138; Pueblo, Navaho, Apache, Ute, 137; Eastern Apache, Navaho, 139; Southern Apache, Mescalero Apache, Jicarilla Apache, 139; Eastern Apache, Western Apache, 140; Jicarilla, 140; Pueblo, 140; Pueblo, 141; Pima, 153; Zuni, 156; Pawnee, 157, 158; Querechos, 158; slaves, 163; Hopi, 165; Zuni, 165; agriculture of, 165; ceremonies, 168; Hopi, 168; Maguas, 168; Jumano, 169; as slaves, 170; Hopi, 176; Acoma, 177; slavery, 178; Acoma, Jumano, 181; agriculture, 185; Navaho, 188; Christianization of, 188; Jemez, 188; Zipias, 190; Zuni, 190, 191; Jumano, 192, 194; Apache, Manso, 202; Pueblo, 203; Isleta, 206; Picuris, Taos, Tewa, 206; Tano, Tewa, Taos, Picuris, 207; Isleta, 211; Piro, 211; settlements, 211; Apache, 212; Manso, Suma, Jano, Julime, Concho, Jocome, Chinara, Salinero, Dientes Negros, 212; Pueblo, 214; Suma, 214; Tano, 214; Tewa, Tano, Taos, 215; Acoma, Zuni, Hopi, 216; christianizing of, 216; Apache, Zuni, 217; Apache, 219; Ute, 220; Tano, 221; Jemez, Zuni, Acoma, Tewa, 223; Zuni, 225; Navaho, Hopi, 226; Seri, Pima, 229; Apache, 234; Tiwa, 238; christianizing of, 239; Nomadic, 240; Apache, 240; Ute, Comanche, 240; Jicarilla Apache, 241; Apache, 242; Navaho, 242; Faraon Apache, 242; christianizing of; Zuni, Hopi, 243; Suma, 245; Slaves, 246; Comanche, 249; Apache, 250; captives of, 251; Yuma, 251; Apache, 260; Pueblo, 260; Comanche, Apache, Taos, Ute; war with; treaties with, 262; Navaho, Pawnee, Apache, 263; Nomadic, Apache, peace treaties with, 264, 271; Kiowa, Comanche, 273, 308; Osage, 309; Pueblo, Mexican, 312; Navaho, Pueblo, 321; Navaho, Apache, 327; Pueblo, 344; Ute, Apache, Comanche, 349; treaties, Ute, Apache, Pueblo, 350; treaties of, Apache, Navaho, Comanche, 351; wars, 352; campaigns, 357; Apache, Navaho, 360; agriculture, 361; Navaho, 362; Navaho, Apache, 376; Apache, Navaho, 377; Navaho, Apache, 378; Apache, Navaho, 389; Comanche, Navaho, Apache, 390; wars, 390; schools for, 486; treaties of, Apache, Navaho, 497; Pueblos, 545

Industrial and Agricultural College, I, 405.

Industries, I, 283, 522.

Ingalls, H. A., III, 174.

Ingham, Arthur E., III, 186.

Inhabited Places in New Mexico, 1844 (map), I, 305.

Inscription Rock, El Morro, I, 118, 190, 216, 244, 247, 554, 574; De Vargas' record on, I, 217 (illustration); National Monument, I, 539.

Insurrection, 1815, I, 283.

Insurrectionists, 1837, I, 321.

Intendent system, I, 258.

International boundaries, I, 357.

International Boundary Commission, I, 466, 467.

Inter-tribal Indian ceremonial, I, 574.

Iron, I, 457.

Irrigation, I, 260, 415, 425, 462, 516, 558, 568, 573, 576, 578, 584.

Isaacks, Jesse A., III, 155.

Isleta, I, 109, 204, 225, 281, 298, 324, 552.

Isleta del Sur Pueblo, I, 100.

Isleta Indians, I, 206, 211.

Isleta Mission Church, I, 100, 195.

Isleta Pueblo, I, 26, 96, 99, 157, 188, 209, 210, 211, 216, 238; (illustration), 239; 359, 550.

Iturbide, I, 270, 317, 318.

Iturrigaray, Jose de, I, 269.

Jackson, Anna, II, 475.

Jackson, David, I, 304.

Jackson, Elrie C., III, 388.

Jackson, Jeremiah, I, 276.

Jackson, John H., II, 474.

Jackson (Col.), I, 340.

Jackson (Corp.), I, 274.

Jackson-Sublette-Smith Expedition, I, 308.

Jackson, William S., II, 481.

Jackson, Waldo and Company, I, 304.

Jacobs, Henry H., II, 292.

Jacobson, Jacob P., II, 169.

Jacona, I, 195, 204.

Jacona Pueblo, I, 65, 222.

Jaffa, Nathan, I, 465, 501, 529, 568.

James, Joseph H., III, 257.

Janes, Joseph T., III, 149.

Jano Indians, I, 212.

Janos Presidio, I, 242.

Jara Arroyo, I, 73.

Jaramillo, Pablo, I, 342.

Jarilla Mining District, I, 458.

Jaritas Ditch and Reservoir Company, I, 469.

Jeancon, I, 50.

Jefferson, Thomas, I, 273.

Jemez, I, 96, 128, 195, 324.

Jemez Creek, I, 77, 92.

Jemez county, attempts to drive Spaniards from, I, 80.
Jemez Forest Reserve, I, 433.
Jemez Hot Springs, schools, I, 485.
Jemez Indians, I, 78, 94, 112, 188, 223.
Jemez Mountains, I, 578.
Jemez National Forest, I, 472.
Jemez Plateau, I, 419, 578.
Jemez Province, I, 168, 176.
Jemez Pueblo, I, 26, 74, 94, 164, 168, 176, 187, 204, 214, 216, 226, 241, 242, 350, 359, 579.
Jemez River, I, 2, 164, 578.
Jemez Springs, 78, 80, 578.
Jemez Valley, I, 77, 92, 168, 565, 578.
Jemez Valley Pueblos, I, 176.
Jessie Mine, I, 457.
Jesuit College, Las Vegas, I, 487.
Jesuit Missions of Durango, I, 183.
Jesuits, I, 200, 229, 244, 250, 402, 486.
Jesus, Juan de, I, 80, 196.
Jewet Navaho school, Dixon, I, 490.
Jicarilla Apache Indians, I, 26, 129, 131, 139, 140, 226, 231, 241, 579.
Jicarilla Apache Indian Reservation, I, 130, 543.
Jicarilla Peak, I, 559.
Jocome Indians, I, 212.
John Hyson Memorial, I, 490.
Johnsen, John C., II, 70.
Johnsen, Thomas A., II, 71.
Johnson, Frank H., II, 434.
Johnson, James T., II, 217.
Johnson, Morris C., III, 456.
Jones, A. A., I, 500, 501.
Jones, Amos D., II, 58.
Jones, F. A., I, 532.
Jones, Frank M., II, 483.
Jones-Leatherwood Bill, I, 141.
Jones, L. N., III, 161.
Jones, Meredith, II, 483.
Jones, William K., II, 483.
Jordan, Jefferson D., III, 34.
Jordi, Jose, I, 532.
Jornado del Muerto, I, 211, 383, 564.
Joseph, Antonio, I, 408, 410, 411.
Journal, Albuquerque, I, 494.
Journal Democrat, Albuquerque, I, 494.
Joyner, William T., II, 460.
Juan Tafoya, schools, I, 486.
Juanita Mine, I, 396.
Juarez, I, 175, 468.
Judicial districts, I, 386, 420, 498.
Julime Indians, I, 212.
Jumano Indians, I, 125, 169, 181, 194, 492.
Jumano Pueblos, I, 177, 178, 179.
Jumanos Mesa, I, 104.
Juniper, I, 10.
Junta de los Rios Mission, I, 232.
Justice of peace courts, I, 354.
Justiniani, Calletano, I, 322.

Kahler, Max L., II, 79.
Kahn, Louis, III, 432.
Kahnt, Fred P., II, 75.
"Kainehm," (illustration), I, 43.
Kane, Herbert W., II, 274.
Kansas Pacific Railroad, I, 445.
Kap ruin, I, 51.
Katsuna Dance, I, 29.
Kearney, Stephen Watts, I, 137, 333, 334, 336, 420.
Kearny Code of Law, I, 338, 388.
Kearny Expedition, I, 75.
Keepers, George A., II, 422.
Kelley, W. H., I, 443.
Kelly, I, 394.
Kelly mine, I, 396, 454.
Kendall, William C., II, 284.
Kendrick, J. M., I, 535.
Kenna, I, 577.
Kenna Bank and Trust Company, I, 527.
Kennedy, I, 451.
Kennedy, Margaret, I, 530.
Kent, H. L., I, 529.
Keres Pueblos, I, 168, 196, 225, 226.
Keres Pueblos missionary province, I, 89, 169.
Keresan linguistic stock, I, 26.
Keresan Pueblo of Santo Domingo, I, 26; different names applied to, 26.
Kettner, I, 573.
Keyes, Maxwell, I, 443.
Keys, A. B., I, 403.
Kianawe, I, 119.
Kimball, Hobart I., II, 495.
Kimbrough, Andrew C., III, 281.
King Mine, I, 457.
Kingsbury, John M., I, 379.
Kingston, I, 396, 416.
Kingston Mining District, I, 454, 455.
Kin Kletso, I, 122.
Kinney, B. H., I, 515.
Kinney, Bartley H., II, 240.
Kino, Eusebio Francisco, I, 199; expeditions of, 200.
Kinsinger, John W., III, 19.
Kinsinger, Peter, I, 394.
Kiowa Indians, I, 273.
Kirk, Michael E., III, 489.
Kissinger, Edward D., III, 258.
Kistler, R. A., I, 494.
Kivas, I, 51, 71, 73, 87, 89, 120.
Kiva in Cliff, Bandelier National Monument, (illustration), I, 584.
Knowles, I, 582.
Koshare at Corn Dance, Santo Domingo (illustration), I, 19.
Koshares, I, 87.
Krigbaum, Robert L., II, 419.
Kroenig, William, I, 394.
Kronig, Louis H., II, 251.
Kronig, Louis H. Jr., III, 492.
Kronig, William, II, 52.
Kronig, William Jr., II, 54.
Kuaua ruin, I, 97.

La Angostura Creek, I, 93.
La Bandera Americana, I, 495.
LaBelle Mining District, I, 452.
La Canada de Santa Cruz, population, I, 281.
Lacey, J. F., I, 538.
La Cienega Pueblo, I, 206.
Ladd, G. E., I, 529.
Ladd, H. O., I, 484.
Ladies' Hospital, Deming, I, 428.
Laguna, I, 285, 324, 340, 364, 405, 552.
Laguna Indians, I, 554.
Laguna Mission Church, I, 109.
Laguna Pueblo, I, 26, 106; (illustration), 107; 108, 128, 138, 214, 225, 264, 554.
Laguna Reservation, I, 108.
La Harpe, I, 232.
La Joya, I, 105; schools, 486.
La Junta Missions, I, 212, 229.
Lake Arthur, I, 567, 568, 569.
Lake Charette Land and Irrigation Company, I, 519.
Lake Charette Reservoir and Ditch Company, I, 469.
Lake of Copalla, I, 180.
Lake of New Mexico, I, 161.
Lake Valley, I, 396, 447, 564.
Lake Valley mining district, I, 396, 454.
Lakewood National Bank, I, 524.
La Madera, I, 542.
LaMajada land grant, I, 81.
Lamy, I, 70.
Lamy, John B., I, 363.
Land claims, I, 359, 474; settlement of, 476, 477.
Land forms, I, 1.
Land grants, I, 475.
Land marks, I, 308.
Land offices, I, 432.
Lande, Baptiste La, I, 273.
Lane, Jennie C., III, 36.
Lane, Nathan D., III, 36.
Lane, William Carr, I, 353, 355, 361.
La Paz, I, 230.
La Plata irrigation project, I, 469.
La Plata River, I, 4, 469.
La Purisima, church originally called, I, 120.
La Revisita de Taos, I, 495.
Largo Ruin, I, 72, 73.
Larios, Juán, I, 183.
Larkin (lieut.), I, 344.
Larrazolo, Octaviano A., I, 408, 496, 497.
Las Animas High Line Ditch Company, I, 470.
Las Animas, La Plate and San Juan Irrigating Canal Company, I, 469.
Las Animas Mining District, I, 393, 396, 454, 455.
Las Animas River, I, 120, 469.
Las Animas River Land and Irrigation Company, I, 470.
Lasater, Olin W., III, 326.
Las Casas, Bartolome de, I, 153.
Las Cruces, I, 340, 399, 404, 406, 412, 429, 432, 457, 461, 485, 487, 557, 558.
Las Cruces, Scenes in (illustration), I, 555.
Las Cruces Thirty-four, I, 406.
La Salienta, I, 208, 209.
La Soledad de los Janos, Mission, I, 192, 208.
Last Chance Mine, I, 454.
Las Trampas, Church at, I, 241.
Las Truchas, I, 260, 322.
Last years of Spanish Regime, I, 267.
Las Valles, school, I, 486.
Las Vegas, I, 335, 343, 406, 412, 445, 447, 461, 486, 487, 492, 494, 513, 524, 544, 546, 558.
Las Vegas Academy, I, 485.
Las Vegas Gazette, I, 406.
Las Vegas irrigation project, I, 469, 519.
Las Vegas Land Grant, I, 481.
Las Vegas Optic, I, 535.
Las Vegas Publishing Company, I, 494.
Las Vegas Savings Bank, I, 526.
Las Ventanas Basin, I, 114.
Lauderbaugh, Charles G., III, 37.
La Voz del Pueblo, I, 495.
Lawrence, James, I, 304.
Lea, Jesse S., III, 468.
Lea, Joseph C., I, 582.
Lea County, I, 498, 500, 566, 569, 582, 585.
Lead, I, 396, 454, 457, 458, 514.
Leader, Lovington, I, 495.
Leader, White Oaks, I, 495.
Leahy, D. J., I, 443.
Leal, J. W., I, 342.
Leasburg Diversion Dam, I, 466, 468.
Leatherwood, Jones, Bill, I, 141.
Lee, Charles C., II, 318.
Lee, Laurence F., II, 110.
Lee, Louis, I, 342.
Lee, Oliver M., III, 134.
Lee Highway, I, 513.
Legislation, I, 338.
Legislature, I, 421.
Leitensdorfer, Eugene, I, 338.
Leiva, Pedro de, I, 208.
Lembke, Charles H., II, 164.
Lemitar, I, 105.
Leon, Alonso de, I, 183, 199.
Leon, Pedro Ponce de, I, 174, 340.
Leonard, Herbert K., III, 121.
Leonard Wood County, I, 570.
Leopold, I, 457.
Letrado, Francisco de, I, 190.
Letton, Reuben P., III, 480.
Lewis and Clark expedition, I, 273.
Leyva, Jose Francisco, I, 319, 320, 323, 341.
Liberal, Lordsburg, I, 495.
Liberty Bond campaigns, I, 510.
Liberty, school, I, 490.
Light, C. M., I, 531.
Lime, I, 458.
Limpia Concepcion, I, 240.
Lincoln, I, 560, 561.
Lincoln, Abraham, I, 355, 381.

Lincoln County, I, 385, 396, 416, 418, 420, 421, 453, 460, 461, 463, 470, 541, 554, 557, 560, 566, 567, 568, 572; war, 391.
Lincoln Forest Reserve, I, 433, 472.
Lincoln National Forest, I, 473, 520, 561, 568, 569, 573, 581.
Lincoln State Bank of Carrizozo, I, 527.
Lindly, Joseph M., II, 68.
Lindsay, A. J., I, 360.
Lindsey, Washington E., I, 496, 497; II, 8.
Lipan Apache Indians, I, 131, 132.
Lisle, Hampton H., III, 72.
Little Colorado River, I, 2, 573.
Little Fanny Mine, I, 454.
Littlefield, George T., III, 371.
Littlefield, William P., III, 395.
Littrell, Isaac P., III, 502.
Livesay, Joseph R., II, 316.
Live stock industry, I, 12, 365, 389, 425, 470, 516, 548, 571, 576, 578, 584, 585, 586.
Livingston, Howard E., III, 128.
Llanero Apache Indians, I, 129, 131.
Llano Estacado, I, 582.
Llewellyn, W. H. H., I, 443.
Lobato, Ventura, I, 315.
Logan, I, 586.
Lone Mountain mining, I, 395.
Lone Star Trail, I, 514.
Long, Elisha V., I, 482.
Long, L. M., I, 465.
Long, Stephen H., I, 278.
Lopez, I, 166.
Lopez, Diego, I, 192.
Lopez, Francisco, I, 99, 163.
Lopez, Nicholas, I, 125.
Lopez, Sabino, III, 151.
Lordsburg, I, 449, 504, 513, 560.
Lordsburg Mining District, I, 456, 457.
Lorenzana, Antonio de, I, 89.
Loretto Academy, Las Cruces, I, 490; (illustration), 491, III, 500.
Loretto, Sisters of, III, 499.
Loring, W. W., I, 367.
Los Alamos, I, 485, 487.
Los Alamos Ranch Schools, Otowi, I, 533.
Los Cerrillos, I, 204.
Los Gomez, I, 207.
Los Lunas, I, 96, 104, 105.
Los Padillas, I, 300.
Los Pinos, I, 399.
Los Punames Province, I, 168.
Losa, Rodrigo del Rio de, I, 166.
Losey, George W., III, 202.
Lotav, Carl, I, 537, 538.
Louisiana purchase, I, 271.
Love, Robert F., III, 192.
Loving State Bank, I, 526.
Lovington, I, 524, 584.
Lowe, T. L., I, 531.
Lower Sonoran Zone, I, 2, 10; native plants and animals, 10.
Lowrey, Joseph, I, 452.
Loyola, Jacobo Ugarte y, I, 252.
Lucero, Antonio, I, 501.
Lucero, Jose A., II, 236.
Lucero, Juan, I, 273.
Lucero, Salvador, I, 338.
Lucero, Victor, II, 215.
Lucero Creek, I, 46.
Luchetti, A., I, 516.
Luchini, Benjamin A., III, 105.
Luckett, George S., III, 293.
Ludwick, Ira L., II, 25.
Lufkin, George W., I, 396.
Lugo, Alonzo de, I, 78.
Luikart, John C., III, 327.
Lujan, I, 190.
Lujan, Emilia V., III, 56.
Lujan, J. Y., III, 56.
Lujan, Mateo, III, 407.
Lumber, I, 573, 579, 586.
Lumberton, I, 451.
Luna, Jesus M., III, 357.
Luna, Solomon, I, 575.
Luna, Tranquilino, III, 426.
Luna County, I, 123, 396, 418, 420, 421, 457, 461, 470, 557, 559, 575.
Luna County Court House, Deming (illustration), I, 574.
Luntz el, A., I, 443.
Lusk, Don W., II, 363.
Lutz, Charles H., II, 497.
Lutz, John H., II, 500.
Lynam, Walter W., II, 209.
Lynch, James, I, 452.
Lynch, Patrick, I, 452.
Lynde, Isaac, I, 367.

McAdams, J. H., II, 416.
McAlpine, James W., III, 379.
McCabe, John T., III, 111.
McCall (Lieut. Col.), I, 345.
McCan, George W., III, 102.
McCanna, Joseph E., II, 159.
McCanna, Peter F., II, 158.
McCarty, I, 114.
McCarty, Joseph C., II, 336.
McClanahan, Joseph, I, 277.
McCleave (Capt.), I, 377.
McClure, Charles E., III, 81.
McClure, John, I, 530.
McCormick, Enos P., III, 474.
McCreight, W. T., I, 494.
McCuistion, Oscar W., II, 486.
McCullough, William H., III, 493.
McDaniel, John, I, 314.
McDermott, Thomas C., II, 356.
McDonald, Charles, III, 242.
McDonald, William C., II, 6.
McDonald, William W., II, 199.
McElwain, Aaron C., III, 471.
McFarland, D. F., I, 405.
McFarland, J. Fred, III, 439.
McFie, John R., II, 11.

McGhee, James B., III, 328.
McGrath, Herbert J., III, 252.
McHalffey, Lawrence P., II, 399.
McIlvain, W. Frank, II, 350.
McKinley County, I, 418, 420, 458, 460, 470, 499, 550, 552, 573.
McKinley County Bank of Gallup, I, 526, 527.
McKinney, Balis L., II, 344.
McKnight, Robert, I, 277, 326.
McKnight, T. Judd, III, 180.
McLeod (Gen.), I, 313.
McLeskey, R. A., II, 370.
McMains, Charles L., II, 442.
McMains, O. P., I, 404.
McMillan Reservoir, I, 465, 517.
McMillen, Kennedy and Weaver, I, 458.
McNally, C. H., I, 367.
McNary, J. G., I, 495.
McRae, L. A., I, 443.
McSwain, Alexander, I, 391.
Macdonald, John A., III, 89.
MacDonald, William C., I, 496, 497.
MacDougall, William, II, 99.
MacGregor Mine, I, 457.
Machebeuf, Joseph P., I, 363.
Macpherson, D. A., I, 494.
Macpherson, Daniel A., II, 162.
Madariaga, Francisco Ignacio de, I, 318, 320.
Madrid, I, 447.
Madrid, Dolores, I, 323.
Madrid, Roque de, I, 80.
Magdalena, I, 447, 454, 520, 556.
Magdalena mining district, I, 396, 454.
Magdalena Mountains, I, 2, 556.
Magee, C. C., I, 535.
Magee's Independent, I, 535.
Magoffin, James, I, 335, 336.
Maguas Indians, I, 168.
Mail routes, I, 512.
Main Street, Roswell (illustration), I, 568.
Major Long's Creek, I, 571.
Majors, A. C., III, 442.
Makemson, June W., III, 391.
Malaga, I, 569.
Maldonado, Lucas, I, 111, 195.
Mandalari, A. M., I, 492.
Manderfield and Tucker, I, 494.
Mangus Company, I, 457.
Mann, Charles E., III, 212.
Mann, John, II, 50.
Manrrique, Jose, I, 267, 277, 279.
Manrrique, Joseph, I, 264.
Manso Indians, I, 125, 202, 212.
Manso Pueblo, I, 192.
Manufacturing, I, 260, 522.
Manzanares, F. A., I, 408.
Manzano Mountains, I, 2, 96, 101, 164, 176, 177, 191, 419, 550, 580, 581.
Manzano National Forests, I, 433, 472, 473, 520, 550, 554, 556, 574, 579, 581.
Manzano Piro Tiwa Pueblos, I, 96, 102, 191.
Manzano Tiwa Pueblos, I, 96, 100, 101.
Marable, William C., III, 215.
Marcos Pueblo, I, 215.
Marcy, R. B., I, 352.
Mares (Capt.), I, 249.
Mares, Vicente, II, 97.
Maria, Augustin de Santa, I, 195.
Maria, Jose Garcia de la, I, 318.
Maria, Juan de Santa, I, 163.
Marques de la Nava de Brazinas, Diego de Vargas, I, 199, 225.
Marquis, Bernabe, I, 204.
Marquis of Montescalaros, I, 180.
Marta, Bernardo de, I, 94.
Martin, Cristobal, I, 170.
Martin, Hernan, I, 192.
Martin, Jose Manuel, I, 318.
Martin, Robert, III, 125.
Martin, Santiago, I, 323.
Martinez, Antonio Jose, I, 319, 320, 323, 325, 326, 327, 341, 342, 362, 363.
Martinez, Epimenio, II, 241.
Martinez, Felix, I, 228, 236, 241, 244, 495; III, 271.
Martinez, Juan C., II, 467.
Martinez, Juan de Jesus, I, 48.
Martinez, Malaquias, I, 496.
Martinez, Mariano, I, 317, 323.
Martinez, Pascual, I, 341.
Martinez, Santiago, I, 341.
Martinez, Severino, I, 318.
Martinez, Reyes P., III, 96.
Mascarenas, Melquiades, II, 90.
Masonic Temple (illustration), I, 551.
Massacres of Pueblo Revolt, I, 206.
Massie, J. A., I, 443.
Mastin, Virgil, I, 395.
Mather, Thomas, I, 309.
Matson, Orville A., II, 141.
Matson, Samuel N., III, 113.
Matthieson, M., I, 404.
Maude S. Mine, I, 454.
Maxwell, I, 563.
Maxwell, L. B., I, 403, 459, 522.
Maxwell, Pete, I, 392.
Maxwell, W. A., I, 458.
Maxwell City, I, 449.
Maxwell Grant, I, 394; Land Grant, 481; Company, 406, 459, 469, 483.
Maxwell Land Grant and Railway Company, I, 483.
May, C. A., I, 350.
Maynez, Alberto, I, 267, 276, 279, 282.
Mazapil, I, 161, 172.
Mazqui, I, 198.
Meador, W. Rex, III, 429.
Meadows, John P., III, 450.
Mechem, Edwin, II, 10.
Mechem, Merritt C., I, 496, 497; II, 37.
Medina, Jose D., II, 202.
Medrano, Juan de, I, 182.

Meek, William E. (Sergeant), I, 274, 276.
Mehlhop, F. L., II, 304.
Mejico, El Rayo de Nuevo, I, 326.
Melbourne, Ralph, II, 115.
Melendez, Tito, III, 84.
Melgares, Facundo, I, 267, 273, 275, 279, 281, 282, 317.
Melgares expedition, I, 274.
Melrose, I, 581.
Melton, Charles S., III, 302.
Memorial ón New Mexico, I, 187.
Menual, John, I, 405.
Menual School, Albuquerque, I, 490.
Menchero, Juan Miguel, I, 240.
Mendinueta, Pedro Fermin de, I, 248, 252.
Mendizabal, Bernardo Lopez de, I, 182, 192.
Mendoza, Antonio de, I, 118, 152.
Mendoza, Don Lorenzo Suarez de, I, 164 (illustration).
Mendoza, Gaspar Domingo de, I, 228, 237.
Mendoza, Juan Dominguez de, I, 210.
Mendoza, Mateo Antonio de, I, 228, 234.
Mendoza, Pedro Gonzales de, I, 169.
Mennett, J. P. S., I, 443.
Merino sheep, I, 389.
Merrimac Mine, I, 458.
Merritt Mine, I, 454.
Merriwether (Superintendent), I, 127.
Merriwether, David, I, 278, 353, 355, 361.
Mersfelder, Louis C., III, 64.
Mesa del Contadero, I, 371.
Mesa del Pajarito, I, 63.
Mesa de los Padillas, I, 97.
Mesa Prieta, I, 578.
Mescalero, I, 129.
Mescalero Apache Indians, I, 26, 127, 129, 131, 132, 139.
Mescalero Apache Indian Reservation, I, 130, 139, 361, 391, 397, 561, 572.
Mesilla, I, 367, 405, 406, 432, 487.
Mesilla News, I, 406.
Mesilla Question, I, 357.
Mesilla Valley, I, 4, 125, 466, 474.
Mesilla Valley Bank of Las Cruces, I, 526.
Mesita Redonda, I, 114.
Mesquite, I, 10.
Messervy, Williaam S., I, 347, 354, 355, 379.
Metal mining, I, 515.
Metalliferous deposits, I, 6.
Metate in place, Western Socorro County (illustration), I, 41.
Methodist Board of Church Extension, I, 403.
Methodist Church, I, 403, 484, 486, 492, 534.
Methodist Church Hospital, Albuquerque, I, 535.
Methodist Missions, I, 404, 492.
Methodist schools, I, 484, 490.
Mexican Cession, I, 333, 334.
Mexican Indians, I, 312.
Mexican land grants, I, 474.
Mexican Law of Limitation, I, 483.
Mexican republic, I, 317.
Mexican War, I, 334, 344.
Mexicans, I, 362.
Mexico, Republic of, I, 140; Independence of, 311; State of, 317.
Michelena, Enrique de Olavide y, I, 228, 236.
Michelet, Jacques, III, 207.
Middle Rio Grande Irrigation Project, I, 518.
Middle Rio Grande Valley, I, 4.
Miguel County, I, 421.
Miles, D. S., I, 348, 360.
Miles, Walton H., III, 200.
Military campaigns, I, 131.
Military Escort for Traders, 1829, 1834, 1843, I, 309.
Military establishment, I, 360, 399.
Military government, I, 333, 344.
Military Institute, I, 484, 488.
Military organizations of Civil war, I, 368.
Military posts, I, 308, 309, 327, 341, 347, 361.
Military protection of presidio, I, 260.
Militia, I, 260, 415.
Miller, Harry A., II, 469.
Miller, Jaffa, III, 45.
Miller, Prager, III, 386.
Milligan, Charles F., III, 408.
Mills, Anson, I, 467.
Mills, William J. (Governor), I, 407, 414.
Mimbres, I, 123.
Mimbres Mining Company, I, 457.
Mimbres mining district, I, 395.
Mimbres Range, I, 559, 564.
Mimbres River, I, 123, 559, 575.
Mimbres Valley, I, 123, 418.
Mina, Francisco Javier, I, 270.
Mina de la Tierra, I, 452.
Miner, Guy, III, 447.
Miner, Lucien L., III, 160.
Mineral products, value of, I, 6.
Mineral Resources, I, 135.
Mineral Waters, I, 458, 579.
Miners' Hospital Raton, I, 428.
Mines and Metal Company, I, 515.
Mining, I, 161; Silver, 161, 170, 171, 175, 182, 183, 230; development, 284, 326, 385; counties for, 393, 394, 415, 416, 445, 451; areas, 454, 514, 515, 585, 586.
Mining, Santa Rita (illustration), I, 514.
Miranda, Guadalupe, I, 482.
Miranda, Juan de, I, 182.
Miranda, Pedro de, I, 47.
Miranda and Beaubien (Maxwell) Land Grant, I, 481.
Missionaries, I, 125, 131, 182, 183, 186; killed in Pueblo Revolt, 205; killed in 1696 revolt, 221; Protestant, Catholic, 364.
Missionary provinces, I, 78.
Missionary work, I, 118.
Mission schools, I, 486.
Mission stations, I, 182.

Missions, San Geronimo, I, 47; early, 67; First Church, 60; Navidad de Nuestra Senora, 101; San Gregorio, 102; Tenabo, 102, 103; San Luis Obispo, 105; San Antonio de Senecu, 106; Laguna, 109; Franciscan, 120, 125; Nuestra Senora de Guadalupe, 126; Nuestra Senora del Socorro, 126; Franciscan, 128, 135, 183, 185, 188; Senecu, Socorro, Alamillo, Sevilleta, Benavides, San Antonio de Senecu, Abo, Tabira, Quaray, 191; Nuestra San Francisco de los Sumas, La Soledad de los Janos; Nuestra Senora del Guadalupe del Paso, 192; Franciscan, 194; San Gregorio, 194; Santa Ana, 195; Alamillo, of Santa Ana, 195; Natividad, Santa Cruz, 195; San Bartolome, 195; San Bernardino, 195; San Diego, 195; San Estevan, 195; Isleta, 195; Sandia, San Francisco, San Felipa, 196; San Lorenzo, Nuestra Senora del Socorro, San Antonio de Senecu, San Luis Obispo de Sevilleta, San Bartolome, Concepcion, 196; San Lorenzo, 196, Porciuncula, 196; Socorro, Nuestra Senora del Socorro, San Geronimo, 197; San Gregorio, 197; Senecu of San Antonio, 197; Purisima Concepcion, 198; Tesuque, San Lorenzo, 198; San Antonio de Isleta, San Antonio de Sandia, 198; Acoma, 200; Dolores, 200; Guebavi, San Xavier del Bac, Tumcacori, 201; churches destroyed in Pueblo revolt, 204; Nuestra Senora de Guadalupe del Paso, La Solendad de los Janos, Nuestro Padre San Francisco de los Sumas, 208; Guadalupe, 209; La Junta, 212, 213; Zuni, 225; La Junta, 229; Spanish, 229; Junta de los Rios, 232; Indian, 235; Cebolleta, 239, 244, 246; Concepcion, San Pedro, 251, 261; secularization of, 268, 282, 327; Taos Abiquiu, Belen, San Juan, San Miguel del Bado, 327, 403; Protestant, 484; ruins of churches, 581.
Mission at Laguna (illustration), I, 224.
Mission Ruin at Taos (illustration), I, 184.
Mission Ruins at Quaray (illustration), I, 103.
Mission, Santa Clara (illustration), I, 243.
Mission Wall at Tabira or Gran Quivira (illustration), I, 189.
Mitchell, John V., III, 251.
Mitchell, L. B., I, 529.
Mitchell, Robert B., I, 381, 382.
Mixton War, I, 154, 160.
Modoc Mine, I, 458.
Moffett, George E., III, 6.
Mogollon, Juan Ignacio Flores, I, 228, 236, 240.
Mogollon Mines Company, I, 515.
Mogollon Mining district, I, 560.
Mogollon Mountains, I, 2, 123, 559, 575, 585.
Mohler, Carl I., III, 245.
Mohoce, Province of, I, 168.
Moise, Sigmund S., III, 418.
Monclova, I, 162, 183.
Monclova, Presidio of, I, 299.
Money, I, 259.
Monsetler, J. B., I, 530.
Montaner, Joseph, II, 19.
Monterey, I, 183.
Montesclaros, Marquis of, I, 180.
Montezuma, I, 102.
Montezuma College, I, 534, 548.
Montezuma Hotel, I, 548.
Montezuma Mesa, I, 115.
Montezuma mine, I, 394.
Montoya, Antonio, I, 322.
Montoya, Desiderio, I, 322.
Montoya, Diego, I, 280.
Montoya, Juan Martinez de, I, 180.
Montoya, Nestor, I, 501.
Montoya, Pedro E., II, 216.
Monument, I, 569.
Moog, John P., II, 256.
Moon, Zachariah B., II, 21.
Moore, W. H., I, 394.
Moqui, I, 195.
Moqui Province, I, 195.
Mora, Garcia de la, I, 277.
Mora, Jose Garcia de, I, 280.
Mora, Manuel Garcia de la, I, 253.
Mora, I, 342, 461, 490, 546.
Mora County, I, 356, 385, 386, 393, 394, 417, 420, 421, 460, 470, 500, 516, 541, 558, 570, 586.
Mora Peak, I, 562.
Moran, Edward F., III, 142.
Morelia, I, 269.
Morelos, Jose Maria, I, 269.
Moreno, Antonio, I, 63, 67.
Moreno gold fields, I, 394.
Moreno Valley, I, 394.
Moreno Water and Mining Company, I, 394, 452.
Morgan, Clarence W., II, 398.
Morlete, Juan, I, 171, 172.
Morlete expedition, written to the council, I, 173.
Mormon Battalion, I, 341.
Moriarity, I, 580.
Morin (Capt.), I, 343.
Morrison, William, I, 272.
Morrison, W. O., I, 443.
Morrow, John, I, 501.
Morton, Andrew, and Company, I, 525.
Moser, Eli, II, 303.
Moses, John A., II, 353.
Mosquero, I, 586.
Motor Minute Men, I, 509.
Mounday, Roy E., II, 100.
Mount Carmel, I, 490.
Mount Graham, I, 156.
Mount Taylor Mountains, I, 2, 573.
Mountain Key Mine, I, 456.
Mountain mining subdistrict, I, 395.
Mountainair, banks, I, 524, 580.
Mountainair State Bank, I, 526.
Mountains, San Mateo, I, 126; Rio Grande, Sangre de Cristo, 131; Sandia, Sacramento, 132; Sierra Madre, 132.
Moxainabi, I, 195.
Muir, John T., III, 122.
Mulky, Carl, II, 108.
Muller, Frederick, I, 443.

Muncy, Harvey L., III, 291.
Munoz, Francisco, I, 80.
Munroe, John, I, 333.
Murphy, Edward L., II, 212.
Murphy, L. G., I, 391.
Museum of New Mexico (illustration), I, 536.
Mutual Light and Power Company, I, 516.
Myers, Richard H., II, 29.

Nabahu Arroyo, I, 59.
Nabahu ruin, I, 126.
Nacimiento Mountains, I, 578.
Naiad Queen Mine, I, 457.
Nambe, I, 195.
Nambe Pueblo, I, 66, 204, 219, 222, 350, 359, 545.
Nangle, Joseph, I, 345.
Nara Visa, I, 448, 449, 576.
Naranjo, Santiago, of Santa Clara, Painting by Julius Rolshoven, I, 59.
Narbona, Antonio, I, 263, 302, 317, 318.
Narvaez, Panfilo de, I, 149.
Narvaez Expedition, I, 149, 151, 153.
National banks, I, 522, 524, 525.
National Defense Act, I, 508.
National Forests, I, 433, 462, 471, 520, 543.
National Forests of New Mexico, 1922 (map), I, 464.
National Geographic Society Expedition, I, 122.
National Irrigation Congress, I, 412.
National monuments, I, 539.
National Old Trails, I, 513.
National Park, I, 565.
National Park to Park Highway, I, 115, 513.
Natividad Mission, I, 195.
Natural bridges, I, 539.
Nava, Pedro de, I, 252, 254, 260.
Navaho Country, I, 127.
Navaho Desert, I, 122.
Navajo Indian reservation, I, 130, 397, 566, 574.
Navaho Indians: beliefs, I, 25, 26; blanket or rug weaving, 31, 78; uprising against Europeans, 80, 94, 120; Indian names for, 126; weaving, sheep raising, 128, 131, 136, 137, 138, 139, 188, 191, 226, 242, 263, 284, 285, 321, 326, 327, 349, 351, 360, 362, 376, 377, 378, 389, 390, 397, 398, 405.
Navaho Mission, Farmington, I, 490.
Navaho Treaty, I, 398.
Navarro, Jose Antonio, I, 312.
Navarro, Francisco Trebol, I, 252.
Navidad de Nuestra Senora, mission of, I, 101.
Neal, Richard, J., II, 517.
Neher, Frank H., II, 204.
Neher, George K., II, 203.
Neis, Claude J., III, 29.
Nelson, Ernest H., III, 189.
Nesbitt, W. Horace, III, 50.
Nesch, Paul, II, 352.
Neumann, Evelyn B., II, 451.
Neumann, Hans, II, 450.
Neve, Felipe de, I, 252, 253, 254, 255, 258.
New Albuquerque, I, 485.
Newberry, John W., III, 74.
New Eden Ditch and Land Company, I, 470.
New Mexican, I, 495.
New Mexican Missions, I, 36.
New Mexican Printing and Publishing Company, I, 494.
New Mexico: pueblos, I, 115; Spanish Archives of, 135; exploration and colonization of, 161; origin of name, 167; first church built in, 176; frontier Mission field, 182; under Mexico, 317; first territorial assembly of, 318; under United States military government, 333; United States control, 334; first legislative assembly of, 338; as territory of the United States, 347; exploraation of, 352; military establishment in, 360; Territory admitted to Union, 407; joint statehood with Arizona suggested, 412; as a state, 414.
New Mexico Agricultural Experiment Station, I, 529.
New Mexico Agricultural Station, I, 558.
New Mexico Archæological Society, I, 424.
New Mexico Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, I, 429.
New Mexico Baptist College, Alamogordo, I, 490.
New Mexico Board of Health, I, 426.
New Mexico Central Railroad, I, 511, 544, 579, 580.
New Mexico Code, I, 338.
New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, I, 431, 489, 529, 558.
New Mexico Counties, 1849 (map), I, 346; in 1863 (map), 383; in 1870 (map), 384; map, 386; in 1895 (map), 417; in 1910 (map), 499; in 1925 (map), 500.
New Mexico "Enabling Act," I, 414.
New Mexico Home, A (illustration), I, 523.
New Mexico Indians, culture of, I, 16; games, 42; Indians, 214.
New Mexico, Inhabited places in, 1844 (map), I, 305.
New Mexico Insane Asylum, I, 429, 548.
New Mexico Institute for the Blind, I, 532; III, 491.
New Mexico Methodist Mission, I, 404.
New Mexico Military Institute, Roswell, I, 431, 489, 530, 568; III, 181.
New Mexico Mission, A (illustration), I, 203.
New Mexico missions, Building of (illustration), I, 585.
New Mexico National Guard, I, 507, 508.
New Mexico Normal Schools, I, 489.
New Mexico Normal University, East Las Vegas (illustration), I, 430; 489, 530, 536, 548.
New Mexico Orphans' Schools, Santa Fe, I, 535.
New Mexico Reform School, El Rito, I, 429.
New Mexico School for the Blind, I, 573.
New Mexico School for the Deaf, I, 533; III, 336.
New Mexico School of Mines, Socorro, I, 431, 489, 531, 556.
New Mexico State Bank of San Antonio, I, 526.

New Mexico State Teachers' College, I, 530, 560; III, 51.
New Mexico State Tribune, I, 535.
New Mexico State University, I, 488.
New Mexico-Texas Rio Grande Irrigation project, I, 517.
New Mexico War News, I, 509.
New Mexico & Southern Pacific Railroad, I, 392.
New Placer Mining District, I, 452.
New Placers, I, 326; district, 394.
New Santa Fe Trail, I, 514.
New Spain: viceroy of, I, 98; exploration of Northern Frontier of, 149; expansion of, 161, 269; government of, 270.
New West Education Commission, I, 484, 486.
News, Alamagordo, I, 495.
News, Clovis, I, 495.
News-Herald, Estancia, I, 495.
News, Socorro, I, 495.
News, Tucumcari, I, 495.
Newspapers, I, 276, 326, 402, 405, 406, 492, 494, 495, 535.
Nicholas, Fred, II, 244.
Nicholson, E. G., I, 364.
Nieto, Antonio Bezerra, I, 236.
Nieto, Francisco Manuel de Silva, I, 182, 190.
Nieves, I, 161; mines, 170.
Niles, Obadiah J., III, 441.
Nixon, Frances E., III, 304.
Niza, Marcos de, I, 118, 152, 154.
Noble, Robert P., II, 374.
Noble, Thomas M., III, 301.
Nogal, I, 561; mining district, I, 396, 453.
Nogales, I, 153.
Nolan (Gervacio) land grant, I, 480.
Nolan, Philip, I, 272.
Nomadic Indians, I, 125, 240, 259, 262, 264, 335, 345.
Nombre de Dios, I, 161.
Nord, Mons S., II, 463.
Normal Schools, I, 431, 484, 488, 489.
North Canadian River, I, 3.
North Homestake Mine, I, 453.
Northeast trade winds, I, 8.
Northern Koresan Pueblos, I, 96.
Northwest New Mexican, Chama, I, 495.
Nuestra Senora de Guadalupe, I, 120.
Nuestra Senora de Guadalupe del Paso mission, I, 192, 208.
Nuestra Senora de Guadalupe del Paso, Pueblo, I, 208.
Nuestra Senora de Guadalupe and St. Peter's School, I, 490.
Nuestra Senora de Guadalupe de Pojoaque Pueblo, I, 65.
Nuestra Senora de los Angeles de Porciuncula Mission, I, 76.
Nuestra Senora de los Dolores y San Antonio Mission, I, 98.
Nuestra Senora de los Remedios Pueblo, I, 71.
Nuestra Senora del Pilar y el Glorioso San Jose, I, 212.
Nuestra Senora del Socorro Missions, I, 196, 197.
Nuestra Senora del Socorro de Pilabo, I, 105.
Nuestro Padre San Francisco de los Sumas, I, 208.
Nueva Andalucia, I, 167, 183.
Nueva Galicia, I, 161, 170, 179.
Nueva Sevilla, I, 105.
Nueva Vizcaya, I, 161, 165, 166, 173, 194, 208, 212, 213, 217, 229, 234, 263, 276.
Nuevo Almaden, I, 162, 171.
Nuevo Leon, I, 162, 171, 172, 183.
Nuevo Santander, I, 229.
Nut pine, I, 10.
Nutrias, I, 118.
Nutt, I, 447, 564, 575.
Nymeyer, John, III, 233.

Oats, I, 471, 519.
O'Bannon, George W., III, 469.
Obesa, Jose Maria, I, 269.
O'Bryan, Mrs. M. J., III, 390.
Oca, Joseph Montes de, I, 89.
Ocampo, I, 160.
Ocate Creek, I, 558.
Ocate River, I, 519.
Ocate, schools, I, 485.
Ochoa, Jose Manuel de, I, 264.
O'Donoju, I, 271.
Oil fields, I, 566.
Ojeda, Bartolome, I, 220.
Ojo Caliente, I, 116, 188, 543.
Ojo Caliente district, I, 119.
Ojo Caliente Pueblo, I, 156, 220.
Ojo Caliente River, I, 50, 51.
Old Abe mine, I, 396, 453.
Old Albuquerque, I, 226, 485, 487.
Old Fort Marcy, I, 69.
Oldham, Winfield B., II, 520.
Old North House, I, 76.
Old Placer district, I, 394.
Old Placer Mining District, I, 452.
Old Placers, I, 326.
Olier, Maurice, II, 234.
Olney, Frederick E., II, 237.
Onate, Alonso de, I, 179.
Onate, Cristobal de, I, 161, 180.
Onate, Juan de, I, 47, 63, 78, 84, 89, 92, 93, 94, 98, 99, 105, 110, 118, 125, 130, 135, 173, 178, 181.
Onate Expedition I, 47, 49, 111, 125, 174, 175, 176, 554.
Oniz, Juan, I, 284.
"Onywinkeyi", pueblo ruin, I, 51.
Open Pit Mining, Santa Rita (illustration), I, 514.
Optic Company, I, 494.
Optic, Las Vegas, I, 494.
Oraibi, I, 195.
Organ Mountains, I, 2, 572
Organ Mountains Mining District, I, 457.
Oro Dredging Company, I, 452.
Orphanages, I, 535.
Orphan's Home and Industrial School, I, 428.

Ortega, Diego, I, 192.
Ortiz, I, 72.
Ortiz, Antonio, I, 280, 318, 319, 341.
Ortiz, Antonio Jose, I, 283.
Ortiz, Fernando, I, 320.
Ortiz, Francisco, I, 318, 319.
Ortiz, Grant, I, 452.
Ortiz, Gregorio, I, 317.
Ortiz, Ignacio, I, 320.
Ortiz, Jose Francisco, I, 318, 319.
Ortiz, Jose R., II, 519.
Ortiz, Juan Felipe, I, 312, 318, 319, 320, 323, 341, 362.
Ortiz, Juan Rafael, I, 283, 319, 320.
Ortiz, Tomas, I, 235, 280, 323, 341.
Ortiz gold mine, I, 326, 452.
Ortiz Mining and Milling Company, I, 452.
Ortiz Mountain, I, 544.
Osage Indians, I, 309.
Oscura Mountains, I, 2, 556.
Otermin, Antonio, I, 98, 100, 111, 199, 202, 205, 207, 209, 240.
Otermin's expedition, I, 212.
Otero, I, 451.
Otero, Antonio Jose, I, 338, 345.
Otero, E. M., I, 509.
Otero, Manuel B., I, 497.
Otero, Mariano S., I, 407, 458.
Otero, Miguel A., I, 355, 407, 411, 572; III, 339.
Otero, Page B., I, 443.
Otero, Vicente I, 323.
Otero County, I, 130, 398, 418, 421, 429, 458, 461, 470, 561, 572.
Otero Mine, I, 458.
Otero Soda Lake, I, 3.
Otowi, Los Alamos Ranch School, I, 533.
Oviedo, I, 150.
Ownby, James R., II, 368.

Paako Pueblo, I, 73.
Pablo Montoya Grant, I, 548.
Pace, Elijah, III, 434.
Pacheco, Bernardo Miera y, I, 256.
Pacheco, Cleto Miera y, I, 280, 282.
Pacheco, Enrique de Avila y, I, 182.
Pacheco, Jesus, III, 495.
Pacheco, Juan A., II, 248.
Pacheco, Tomas, II, 496.
Pacific Mine, I, 456.
Pacific Railroad Surveys, I, 357.
Padgett, Marius M., II, 278.
Padilla, Diego, I, 99.
Padilla, Juan de, I, 156, 157, 160.
Paguate ranch, I, 108.
Painted Cave, I, 83.
Paintings, early, I, 49.
Pajaritan Culture, I, 69.
Pajarito, I, 285, 300, 486.
Pajarito Creek, I, 576.
Pajarito Plateau, I, 58, 61, 89, 536, 537.
Palace of the Governors, I, 69, 536, 545.
Palo Blanco Land and Irrigation Company, I, 469.
Palomas Chief Mine, I, 455.
Palomas Valley, I, 466.
Paltenghe, Manuel, III, 75.
Pankey, Reuben P., II, 80.
Panuco, I, 183.
Paraje, I, 108.
Pardo, I, 102.
Paredes, Mariano, I, 322, 323.
Park, George S., I, 311.
Park Highway, I, 565.
Parke, J. G., I, 357; surveys of, 358.
Parker, Frank W., II, 13.
Parochial schools, I, 484, 552.
Parval, I, 183.
Parsons, Josephine, I, 529.
Party of Onate, I, 176.
Pate, Louis H., III, 334.
Patriotic Loans, I, 283.
Patterson, James, I, 277.
Pattie, James Ohio, I, 302, 310, 326.
Pattie, Sylvester, I, 310, 326.
Paulhan, Edward M., II, 82.
Pawnee Indians, I, 157, 158, 231, 232, 263, 276.
Paxton, James H., II, 331.
Peace Treaties with Indians, I, 264, 397.
Peak, James H., II, 54.
Pearce, John S., III, 316.
Pearl, I, 584.
Pearl fisheries, I, 230.
Pearson, Oliver, II, 332.
Pearson, Thomas J., III, 23.
Pecos, I, 96, 125, 132, 196, 324, 538.
Pecos Forest Reserve, I, 433.
Pecos highland, I, 69.
Pecos Irrigation and Improvement Company, I, 465.
Pecos Irrigation and Investment Company, I, 463.
Pecos National Forest, I, 472.
Pecos Pueblo, I, 74, 157, 158, 159, 165, 171, 176, 158, 159, 165, 171, 176, 204, 206, 214, 219, 222, 204, 206, 214, 219, 222, 226, 233, 235, 335, 359.
Pecos Pueblo, roof construction (illustration), I, 38.
Pecos River, I, 151, 545, 561, 566, 569, 570, 572, 576, 577, 582.
Pecos River Dam, I, 465.
Pecos River Forest, I, 472.
Pecos Ruins in 1846 (illustration), I, 75.
Pecos Valley, I, 4, 139, 164, 169, 385, 417, 463, 561, 566, 580, 582.
Pecos Valley Railroad, I, 448, 449.
Pecos Valley Ruins, I, 76.
Pecos Valley and Northwestern Railway Company, I, 448, 449, 567, 581.
Pedraza, Gomez, I, 319.
Pelado Peak, I, 578.
Pelham, William, I, 359.
Peloncillo Mountains, I, 2, 584.
Pena, Joseph Mariano de la, I, 283.

Pena, Juan de Dios, I, 74, 260, 263.
Pena, Mariano de la, I, 318.
Pena Blanca, I, 83, 486, 490.
Penalosa, I, 194.
Penas Negras Pueblo, I, 70.
Penasco, schools, I, 486.
Penasco Blanco, I, 122.
Penasco Irrigation Project, I, 518.
Penasco Rock Diversion Dam and Canals, I, 468.
Penitente Ceremony, Good Friday (illustration), I, 401.
Penitentes, I, 363.
Penitentiary, I, 424.
Pennington, Edward, III, 273.
Penuela, de la, I, 242.
People's Court, I, 382.
Peoples State Bank, I, 526.
Peppin (Sheriff), I, 391.
Peralta, I, 375, 404, 486.
Peralta de la Cordoba, Miguel de, I, 480.
Peralta, Pedro de, I, 180, 181, 182.
Peralta Canyon, I, 81, 578.
Peralta Reavis, I, 480.
Peralta Reavis suit, I, 474.
Percha Creek, I, 564.
Percha Diversion Dam, I, 517.
Perea, Estevan, I, 183, 187, 188.
Perea, Francisco, I, 387.
Perea, Juan, I, 323, 345.
Perea, Pedro, I, 408, 412.
Perea, Pedro Jose, I, 318, 320.
Perez, Albino, I, 317, 320, 321, 325.
Perez, Francisco, I, 192.
Perico Creek, I, 571.
Perrine, George D., II, 459.
Perry, Reuben, II, 175.
Perry, S. Luther, III, 231.
Pershing Expedition, I, 507.
Pescado, I, 118.
Pesquieros, Leonardo, I, 326.
Petroglyph, I, 63.
Petroleum Products, I, 422.
Pettit, R. Fred, II, 177.
Pfeifler (Capt.), I, 377.
Phelps Dodge Company, I, 448, 449, 457.
Phelps Dodge Corporation, I, 514, 515.
Phillips, Benjamin T., II, 106.
Phillips, Bert, I, 538, 542.
Phillips, James W., II, 357.
Phillips, Orie L., II, 503.
Physical features, I, 1.
Pictographs, I, 71.
Pictured rocks, I, 63.
Picuries, Province of, I, 176.
Picuris Indians, I, 206, 207, 231, 542.
Picuris Pueblo, I, 26, 48, 49, 176, 196, 204, 214, 284, 359.
Piedra River, I, 4.
Pike, Zebulon Montgomery, I, 272, 273, 275.
Pike Expeditions, I, 275, 276.
Pilabo ruin, I, 105.
Pile, William A., I, 381, 382.
Pima Indians, I, 153, 229.
Pimeria Alta, I, 229.
Pinnawa, I, 119.
Pino, I, 98.
Pino, Facundo, I, 341.
Pino, Jose, I, 280, 283.
Pino, Jose O. y, III, 342.
Pino, Juan Esteven, I, 318.
Pino, Manuel Jr., III, 499.
Pino, Miguel, I, 341, 371.
Pino, Nicolas, I, 341.
Pino. Pedro Bautista, I, 280, 283.
Pinos Altos, I, 560.
Pinos Altos Mines, I, 451.
Pinos Altos mining district, I, 395.
Pinos Altos Ranges, I, 559.
Pinos Altos Smelter (illustration), I, 454.
Pintada Canyon, I, 570, 580.
Pipkin, Samuel W., III, 308.
Pipkin, Smith M., III, 309.
Pipkin, William W., Jr., III, 480.
Piro Indians, I, 211.
Piro Pueblos, I, 167, 191, 209.
Piro Tiwa Pueblo, I, 26, 96.
Pitaval, J. B., I, 492, 534.
Placer mining, I, 395, 452.
Plains Indians, I, 74.
Plains of San Augustine, I, 586.
Plains Soil Region, I, 4.
Plan of Iguala, I, 271.
Plant life, I, 9.
Plateaus, I, 2.
Platt, R. R., I, 533.
Platte River, I, 231.
Plaza, Las Vegas (illustration), I, 427.
Plaza at Santa Fe (illustration), I, 544.
Plaza Trust & Savings Bank of Las Vegas, I, 525, 526, 527.
Point of Rocks, I, 314.
Pojoaque Pueblo, I, 64, 204, 219, 222, 223.
Pojoaque River, I, 544.
Political Conditions, 1750, I, 238.
Political Groups, I, 301.
Political reorganization, I, 250.
Political subdivisions, I, 253, 324, 384.
Political system of Spanish, I, 267.
Polvadera, I, 105.
Pond, Robert S., II, 348.
Ponil, I, 563.
Pope, I, 201.
Pope, Delmer N., III, 260.
Pope, John, I, 358; surveys of, 358.
Population, I, 127, 238, 257, 325, 366, 403, 445, 460, 528, 542, 543, 545, 548, 550, 554, 556, 557, 558, 561, 563, 565, 566, 567, 569, 570, 571, 572, 573, 575, 576, 577, 578, 580, 584, 585, 586.
Perciuncula, Mission of, I, 196.
Porras, Francisco de, I, 188, 195.
Port of Conversion of San Pablo, I, 180.
Portales, I, 448, 461, 567, 577.
Porter, Robert P., III, 99.
Porterfield, David A., II, 171.

Porterfield, W. C., III, 381.
Posada, Pedro Reneros de, I, 93, 199.
Posadas, Alonso de, I, 194.
Poseueve, I, 51.
Posey, Gifford O., III, 415.
Postal Highway, I, 513.
Potrero, Viejo, I, 84, 86, 90, 219.
Pottery, I, 17, 33, 51, 114, 116.
Powder factory, I, 327.
Prado de Taos schools, I, 485.
Prager, Arthur, II, 135.
Prager, Sidney, III, 178.
Prager, W. S., I, 465.
Pratt, Abram N., III, 225.
Pratt, Randolph R., III, 491.
Pratte, Sylvester, I, 302, 310.
Prehistoric Kiva of Puye (illustration), I, 57.
Prehistoric pueblos, I, 17, 69.
Presbyterian Board of Home Missions, I, 405, 485.
Presbyterian Church, I, 364, 403, 405, 484, 486, 492, 534.
Presbyterian Hospital in Albuquerque, I, 535.
Presbyterian schools, I, 490.
Presidios, I: Monclova, 199; Juan Bautista, 228; Belen, 229; San Jose del Calbo, 230; Guevavi, Fronteras, Janos, El Paso, Santa Fe, 242; Nueva Vizcaya, 263; Rio Grande, 276, 280; del Norte, 315.
Presley, Thomas E., III, 392.
Press, I, 268, 326.
Price, Sterling, I, 333, 341.
Prichard, George W., III, 353.
Priddy, James B., III, 317.
Prince, L. Bradford, I, 407, 411.
Pritchard, John O., III, 501.
Probate Courts, I, 354.
Proebstel, Charles, III, 484.
Proposed Santa Fe Fiesta Theatre (illustration), I, 528.
Protestant Churches, I, 403, 534.
Protestant missionaries, I, 364.
Provinces, I, 252.
Province of Coahuila, I, 199.
Province of Holy Evangel of Franciscan Order, I, 187.
Province of Jemez, I, 168, 176.
Province of Keres, I, 169.
Province of Mohoce, I, 168.
Province of Moqui, I, 195.
Province of Picuries, I, 176.
Province of Queres (Keres), I, 176.
Province of San Luis, I, 231.
Province of San Felipe, I, 163.
Province of Sinaloa, I, 229.
Province of Tamos, I, 169.
Province Tehua, I, 176.
Province of Tiguez, I, 98.
Province of Ubates, I, 169.
Provincial Assembly, I, 318.
Provincial Officers, I, 228, 237, 317.
Provincias Internas, I, 279.
Pruit, Albert H., II, 375.
Puaray, I, 196.
Puaray Pueblo, I, 96, 97, 98, 163, 165, 167, 177, 205, 210.
Public Library (illustration), I, 551.
Public Schools, I, 325, 364, 365, 399, 402, 429, 473, 484, 487, 528.
Pueblito, I, 55.
Pueblo Artist, painting by Gerald Cassidy, I, 32.
Pueblo Bonito Boarding Schools, Crown Point, I, 534.
Pueblo culture, I, 17.
Pueblo grants, I, 54, 579.
Pueblo of Hawwikku near Zuni (illustration), I, 117.
Pueblo Indian claims, I, 359.
Pueblo Indians: cosmogony of, I, 18; beliefs, 18, 131, 136, 137, 138, 139, 140, 141, 201, 203, 214, 260, 281, 284, 312, 344, 348, 350, 362, 474, 479, 579.
Pueblo Indian Governors, 1863 (illustration), I, 379.
Pueblo, Isleta (illustration), I, 239.
Pueblo land grants, I, 141.
Pueblo Mission, I, 196.
Pueblo Pintado Ruins (illustration(), I, 121.
Pueblo Reconquest, I, 199.
Pueblo Revolt, 1680, I, 47, 60, 65, 71, 72, 76, 89, 92, 93, 98, 99, 105, 108, 110, 111, 126, 131, 199; causes of, 201; Mission church destroyed, 204; Spanish victim of, 204; Spaniard defense in, 204; Spanish refugees of, 206; massacres of, 206, 210, 216, 218.
Pueblo Revolt, 1696, I, 221.
Pueblo ruins, I, 58, 114, 122, 581.
Pueblo settlements, I, 136.
Pueblo & Arkansas Valley Railroad, I, 392.
Pueblos: government of, I, 27; historic and prehistoric, 45; divided into missionary provinces, 78; present day, 96; ruins of historic and prehistoric, 96, 114; built in cliffs, 120, 138, 211.
Pueblos: of Acoma, I, 106, 178, 179, 264; Alto, 105, 122; Bernalillo, 164; Binoto, 122, 539; Cochiti, 172; Galisteo, 225, 226, 241; Gaypa, 175; Hawwikku, 156; Hopi, 156, 180, 195, 244; Isleta, 157, 209, 211, 238; Jemez, 159, 164, 241, 242; Jumanos, 104, 125, 178, 179; Laguna, 128, 225; Manso, 192; Manzano Piro Tiwa, 102; Nuestra Senora de Guadalupe del Paso, 208; Ojo Caliente, 156; Pecos, 158, 204, 235, 335; Picuris, 176, 204; Piro, 159, 191, 209; Puaray, 163, 165, 167; Rio Grande, 165, 244; Sandia, 207, 240; San Felipe, 172; San Juan, 201, 202; Santa Ana, 172; Santa Clara, 128; Santa Fe, 176; Santo Domingo, 108; Senecu, 209; Sevilleta, 191, 209; Sia, 220; Socorro, 209; Tajique ruins, 101; Tano, 204; Taos, 176, 188, 240; Tegua (Tewa), 176; Tesuque, 226; Tewa, 176; Tiwa, 191; Una Vida, 122; Zuni, 180, 188, 190.
Puerco River, I, 109, 114.
Puerco Valley, I, 578.
Puertecito, I, 108.

Puerto, I, 394.
Puerto de Luna, I, 158, 159.
Puget Sound to the Gulf Highway, I, 513.
Purcell, James, I, 273.
Purisima Concepcion Mission, I, 198.
Putney, Lyman B., II, 254.
Puye, School at, I, 537.
Pyle Memorial, Taos, I, 490.
Pyramid Mining District, I, 457.
Pyramid Mountains, I, 2, 584.

Quabila, Mines of, I, 171.
Qualacu Pueblo, I, 105.
Quaray, I, 96, 101, 102, 196, 538.
Quaray Mission, I, 191.
Quaray Mission Church Ruins (illustration), I, 5.
Quaray Pueblo, I, 26, 100, 191.
Quartz mill, I, 395.
Quay County, I, 419, 420, 421, 460, 570, 571, 576, 581.
Quemada Mesa, I, 89.
Quemado Pueblo, I, 70.
Querechos Indians, I, 158.
Queres (Keres) province, I, 176, 196.
Queretaro revolutionary society, I, 269.
Quesenberry, James S., III, 157.
Questa, I, 542.
Quinn, James, I, 345.
Quinobes, Cristobal de, I, 92.
Quintana, Demetrio, II, 94.
Quintana, Miguel, I, 283.
Quintana, Teodocio, I, 319.
Quivira, I, 159, 179.

Raabe, Walter C., II, 76.
Rabal, Joaquin Codallos y, I, 228, 237.
Race equality, I, 270.
Rada, Manuel de Jesus, I, 319.
Rae, John, I, 453.
Ragland, I, 576.
Railroads, I, 108, 131, 251, 326; explorations, 357; surveys, 357, 389; development, 392, 395, 416, 419, 445, 447, 448, 449, 460, 471, 492, 511, 522, 563, 561, 562.
Rainfall records, I, 7.
Ramah, I, 573.
Ramirez, Alexandro, I, 302.
Ramirez, Juan, I, 111, 188, 195.
Ramirez, Valerio, II, 310.
Ranchos de Albuquerque, schools, I, 485.
Ranchos de Taos, I, 485, 490.
Ranchito, I, 486.
Range, Raton, I, 495.
Rascon, Juan Rafael, I, 328.
Raton, I, 451, 461, 486, 487, 512, 513, 563.
Raton Coal and Coke Company, I, 459.
Raton Pass, I, 445.
Raton Publishing Company, III, 449.
Raton Range, I, 535.
Rayado River, I, 482.
Raynolds, Frederick A., I, 525.
Raynolds, Jefferson, I, 482, 525.
Raynolds, John M., II, 70.
Raynolds, Joshua, I, 525.
Raynolds Brothers Bank, I, 525.
Read, Henry W., I, 364.
Real de San Pedro de Alcantra, I, 209.
Real de San Lorenzo, I, 209, 212.
Real del Santismo Sacramento, I, 209.
Realito de San Lorenzo, I, 245.
Reavis, James A., I, 479.
Reclamation Service Act, I, 467.
Reconquest, I, 80, 89, 94, 111, 126, 135, 201, 217, 224.
Record, Las Vegas, I, 495.
Record, Roswell, I, 495.
Red River, I, 482, 581.
Red River District, I, 452.
Red River Valley, I, 273, 542.
Redondo, Bosque, I, 127.
Reed, Guy A., II, 359.
Reed, William T., III, 224.
Reeve, J. D., I, 360.
Reeves, Benjamin, I, 309.
Regensberg, Benjamin, II, 307.
Register and *Tribune*, Roswell, I, 495.
Reid, Robert C., III, 196.
Reid, W. C., I, 443.
Reidy, J. A., I, 529.
Reidy, John A, II, 114.
Reinburg, John E., II, 391.
Rencher, Abraham, I, 353, 355.
Rendon, Gabino, II, 231.
Rendon, Matias de, I, 50.
Rengel, Jose, I, 252.
Representatives, I, 387, 409, 421.
Republic of Mexico, I, 140.
Reservation policy of United States, I, 131.
Reservations, Indian, I, 127, 129, 130, 133, 137, 139, 140, 141, 361, 376, 378, 391, 398, 579.
Reserve, I, 123, 586.
Reserve State Bank, I, 527.
Residence Section, Albuquerque, (illustration), I, 337.
Resources, I, 301.
Revenue Law of 1869, I, 389.
Revista Catolica, I, 406, 495.
Revista Evangelica, I, 406.
Revolt, Pueblo, I, 131.
Revolt of 1837, I, 328.
Revolutionists, of 1837, I, 321.
Revolutionary War, I, 250.
Reynolds, Robert M., III, 116.
Rhea, Florence B., III, 394.
Rhea, Joseph E., III, 393.
Riano, Joseph de, I, 57.
Riballo, Joseph M., I, 234.
Rice, Lucien G., II, 41.
Richardson, G. A., I, 501.
Rickman, C. Duggan, II, 403.
Riedling, Alexander I., II, 96.
Rigney, Fleming J., III, 78.
Riley, John, I, 391.
Rincon, I, 447, 466, 557.
Rio, Rodrigo del, I, 161.

Rio Abajo, I, 227, 542.
Rio Arriba, I, 205, 558.
Rio Arriba County, I, 130, 140, 324, 328, 342, 345, 356, 386, 416, 417, 420, 447, 453, 460, 470, 542, 565.
Rio Arriba Land and Cattle Company, I, 480.
Rio Arriba Pueblo, I, 365.
Rio de las Nazas, I, 175.
Rio de las Vacas, I, 169.
Rio de los Frijoles, I, 579.
Rio de los Nadadores, I, 171.
Rio de Nombre de Jesus, I, 180.
Rio del Norte, I, 167.
Rio del Sacramento, I, 213.
Rio del Tizon, I, 156.
Rio Felix, I, 566.
Rio Frijoles, I, 578.
Rio Grande River, I, 1; (illustration), 2; 3, 69, 83, 88, 125, 151, 167, 351, 518, 552, 556, 557, 564, 575, 578.
Rio Grande Basin, I, 123.
Rio Grande Commission, I, 504.
Rio Grande Dam and International Irrigation Company, I, 467.
Rio Grande Dam and Irrigation Company, I, 467.
Rio Grande Industrial School, Albuquerque, I, 490.
Rio Grande Mountains, I, 131.
Rio Grande Piro Tiwa Pueblos, I, 96, 104.
Rio Grande Pueblos, I, 165, 176, 242, 545.
Rio Grande Republica, Las Crucees, I, 495.
Rio Grande Settlements, I, 251.
Rio Grande Tiwa Pueblos, I, 96.
Rio Grande Valley, I, 133, 163, 183, 541, 552, 556.
Rio Grande and Southwestern Railroad Company, I, 451.
Rio Hondo, I, 561, 566.
Rio Hondo Reservoir Water Users' Association, I, 516.
Rio Hondo Valley, I, 465.
Rio Penasco, I, 566, 569.
Rio Puerco, I, 4, 114, 550, 552, 573, 578.
Rio Salado, I, 171.
Ritch, William G., I, 382; II, 39.
Ritch, Watson L., II, 40.
Rito de los Frijoles, I, 26; (illustrations), 40, 82, 83, 537, 578.
Rival between France and Spain, I, 248.
Rivera, Jose C., II, 250.
Rivera, Juan Maria de, I, 255.
Rivera, Pedro de, I, 232.
Rivers, I, 129, 151, 544, 573
Roads, I, 254, 256, 307, 308, 352, 357, 360, 512, 513, 542, 543, 544, 546, 552, 556, 557, 558, 561, 563, 564, 565, 566, 567, 569, 570, 572, 576, 577, 580, 581, 582, 585.
Robert, Sallie L., II, 386.
Roberts, B. S., I, 367.
Roberts, Dan W., II, 446.
Roberts, F. H. H., I, 530.
Roberts, J. M., I, 405.
Robertson, James E., III, 246.
Robertson, John B., II, 179.
Robidoux, Antoine, I, 305
Robidoux, Miguel, I, 302.
Robinson, A. A., I, 393.
Robinson (Capt.), I, 344.
Robinson, Lewis B., II, 377.
Robinson, John, I, 275.
Robinson, John H., I, 274.
Robledo, Francisco Gomez, I, 202.
Rociada, schools, I, 486.
Rockford Mine, I, 453.
Rock Island railroad, I, 570, 580.
Rock of Acoma, I, 216.
Rocky Mountain Soil Region, I, 4.
Rodey, Bernard S., I, 408, 411.
Rodgers, T. G., I, 530.
Rodriguez, I, 166.
Rodriguez, Agustin, I, 99, 163, 166.
Rodriguez, Donaciano E., III, 101.
Rodriguez expedition, I, 166.
Rogers, Charles, III, 275.
Rogers, James J., III, 451.
Rolshoven, Julius, I, 538.
Roman Catholic Church, I, 270, 362.
Romero, Antonio J., III, 98.
Romero, Arthur J., II, 223.
Romero, Cleofes, II, 72.
Romero, Eugenio, I, 482; II, 232.
Romero, Margarito, II, 263.
Romero, Maria B., II, 263.
Romero, Miguel, I, 283.
Romero, Pedro, III, 300.
Romero, Rafael, II, 223.
Romero, Trinidad, I, 387.
Roosevelt, Theodore, I, 577.
Roosevelt County, I, 419, 420, 421, 448, 460, 499, 500, 566, 570, 577, 581, 582.
Roosevelt's Rough Riders, I, 443.
Rosas, Juan de, I, 89.
Rosas, Luis de, I, 182, 188.
Rose, William, II, 462.
Rosenwald, David S., II, 146.
Rosenwald, Sidney U., II, 146.
Rosenwald Brothers, II, 146.
Ross, Edmund G., I, 407.
Roswell, I, 448, 461, 463, 465, 490, 513, 524, 561, 567, 568.
Roswell News, I, 495, 535.
Roswell Record, I, 535.
Rouault, Theodore, II, 319.
Round Mountain, I, 559.
Roy, banks, I, 524.
Roy Trust & Savings Bank, I, 526.
Royall, Charles C., II, 354.
Roybal, Santiago, I, 246.
Rowe, Cecil, II, 101.
Rowells, Richard E., III, 320.
Rowland, John, I, 311.
Rubi, Jose Pedro, I, 281.
Rubi, Marques de, I, 250.

Rueland, John, I, 302.
Rudulph, Eugenio, III, 83
Rudulph, Nicanor, II, 57.
Ruidoso, I, 561.
Ruins, I, 49; community houses, 50; "Onywinkeyi," 51; 58, 71, 72, 83, 84, 93, 96, 102, 116, 122, 123.
Ruiz, Alfred, II, 452.
Rural schools, I, 485, 528.
Rutherford, David O., II, 406.
Ruxten, George F., I, 335.
Ryan, Raymond R., II, 67.

Sabinal, I, 105, 264.
Sacramento Mountains, I, 2, 132, 561, 566, 572, 573.
Sacred springs, I, 124.
St. Anthony Orphanage at Albuquerque, I, 535.
St. Catherine's Indian Schools, Santa Fe, I, 534.
Saint Denis, I, 230.
St. Francis' School, Santa Fe, I, 490.
St. Joseph's Hospital, Albuquerque, I, 428, 535.
St. Katherine's Indian Schools, Santa Fe, I, 490.
St. Louis, Rocky Mountain and Pacific Company, I, 451 459, 515.
St. Louis and San Francisco Railroad Company, I, 446.
St. Mary's Hospital at Roswell, I, 535.
St. Michael's College, Santa Fe, I, 364, 487, 490, 534; II, 507.
St. Vincent's Academy, I, 490.
St. Vincent's Hospital and Orphanage, Santa Fe, I, 428.
St. Vincent's Hospital at Santa Fe, I, 535.
St. Vincent's Orphans' Home, I, 490.
St. Vrain, Ceran, I, 302, 343, 363.
Sais, Victor, II, 132.
Salado Creek, I, 582.
Salas, Juan de, I, 99, 192, 195.
Salazar, Antonio O. y, III, 426.
Salazar, Cristobal de, I, 63.
Salazar, Damasio, I, 313.
Salazar, Jose Maria, I, 319.
Salazar, Pablo, I, 323.
Salcedo, Nemesio, I, 252, 262.
Saline deposits, I, 580.
Saline lagoons, I, 3.
Salinero Indians, I, 12.
Salis, Manuel Rubi de, I, 285.
Salmeron, Geronimo de Zarate, I, 78, 98, 128, 187.
Salt deposits, I, 165, 177, 458, 580.
Saltillo, I, 269.
Samaniego, Juan de, I, 182.
San Andres Mountains, I, 2, 556, 572.
San Antonio, I, 105, 191, 300, 447.
San Antonio de Isleta Mission, I, 99, 198.
San Antonio de Sandia Mission, I, 198.
San Antonio de Senecu Mission, I, 105, 196.
San Antonio Mission, I, 195.
San Antonio River, I, 220.
Sanatoriums, I, 552.
San Augustin Pass, I, 557.
San Bartolome, I, 175, 284.
San Bartolome Mission, I, 196.
San Bienaventura Mission, I, 49, 86.
San Carlos, I, 129.
Sanchez, Blas, II, 243.
Sanchez, Canuto C., III, 419.
Sanchez, Francisco, I, 163.
Sanchez, Gregorio, I, 320.
Sanchez, J. M., I, 338, 341.
Sanchez, Jose P., II, 24.
Sanchez, Manuel, I, 323.
Sanchez, Manuel A., III, 358.
San Cristobal, I, 172, 195.
San Cristobal Arroyo, I, 70.
San Cristobal Pueblo, I, 70, 206, 219, 221, 223.
Sanders, Jefferson J., III, 31.
Sandia, I, 253.
Sandia Indians, I, 98.
Sandia Mission, I, 196.
Sandia Mountains, I, 2, 73, 132, 225, 544, 550.
Sandia Mountains and Rio Grande Scenes (illustration), I, 2.
Sandia Pueblo, I, 26, 96, 187, 205, 207, 210, 240, 359, 578.
San Diego Mission Church, original, I, 78, 195.
San Diego Pueblo, I, 80, 97.
San Diego Canyon, I, 77, 578.
Sandoval, Antonio, I, 312, 318.
Sandoval Felipe de, I, 141, 234, 284.
Sandoval, Francisco, I, 323, 338; II, 229.
Sandoval, Jose Andres, I, 320.
Sandoval, Jose P., II, 206.
Sandoval, Lorenzo J., III, 348.
Sandoval, I, 578.
Sandoval County, I, 419, 453, 467, 470, 543, 550, 578.
Sand painting, I, 40.
San Estevan Mission, I, 195.
San Felipe, I, 74, 176, 253, 511.
San Felipe Province, I, 163.
San Felipe de Albuquerque, I, 226.
San Felipe Indians, I, 80, 92.
San Felipe Mission, I, 196.
San Felipe de Neri Church (illustration), I, 484.
San Felipe Pueblo, I, 26, 69, 86, 88, 90, 91, 172, 188, 204, 210, 214, 219, 222, 350, 359. 579.
San Felipe Railway, I, 451.
San Fernando, I, 300.
Sanford, John H., III, 420.
San Francisco de los Sumas Mission, I, 192.
San Francisco Mission, I, 98, 196.
San Francisco River, I, 4, 123, 585.
San Gabriel, I, 55.
San Geronimo, I, 175.
San Geronimo Mission, I, 47, 197.
Sangre de Cristo Mountains, I, 2, 131, 541, 544, 558, 562.
San Gregorio Mission, I, 102, 194, 197.
San Ildefonso, I, 128.
San Ildefonso, corn dance at (illustration), I, 24.
San Ildefonso Mesa, I, 321.

San Ildefonso Pueblo, I, 57, 60, 196, 204, 218, 219, 222, 350, 369, 545.
San Jose, I, 114.
San Jose del Cabo Presidio, I, 230.
San Jose de la Laguna, I, 108.
San Jose Mission, I, 80.
San Jose River, I, 106, 109, 552.
San Jose Valley, I, 114, 554.
San Juan, I, 183.
San Juan Bautista Pueblo, I, 105, 228, 230.
San Juan County, I, 384, 416, 420, 460, 461, 469, 470, 516, 539, 542, 565.
San Juan County National Bank of Farmington, I, 525.
San Juan Creek, I, 576.
San Juan de Caballeros, I, 53, 196.
San Juan Irrigating Canal Company, I, 469.
San Juan Mission, I, 80, 327.
San Juan Mountains, I, 2, 543.
San Juan Pueblo, I, 53, 201, 202, 204, 214, 222, 543.
San Juan ranch, I, 108.
San Juan Review, Aztec, I, 495.
San Juan River, I, 120, 469, 565.
San Juan Valley, I, 126, 511, 578.
San Juan Valley Ruins, I, 120.
San Lazaro, I, 197.
San Lazaro Pueblo, I, 70, 72, 206, 218, 221, 223.
San Lorenzo, I, 211.
San Lorenzo de Tesuque Mission, I, 66.
San Lorenzo Mission, I, 50, 196, 198.
San Lucas, I, 172.
San Luis Obispo de Sevilleta, I, 105, 196.
San Luis, Province of, I, 231.
San Marcial, I, 104, 167, 176, 183, 191, 348, 445.
San Marcos, I, 172, 197.
San Marcos Pueblo, I, 70, 177, 202, 206, 219.
San Mateo, I, 114, 485.
San Mateo Mountains, I, 126, 556.
San Martin, Sombrerete, I, 161.
San Miguel, Francisco de, I, 76.
San Miguel, I, 47, 335, 487, 541, 548.
San Miguel Church, Santa Fe, I, 69; (illustration), 193; 235.
San Miguel County, I, 324, 338, 342, 345, 356, 385, 386, 388, 393, 417, 420, 447, 460, 470, 541, 545, 552, 570.
San Miguel County Court House, Las Vegas (illustration), I, 423.
San Miguel del Bado, I, 281, 285.
San Miguel del Bado Mission, I, 327.
San Miguel National Bank of Las Vegas, I, 524.
San Pascual ruin, I, 105.
San Pedro, I, 452.
San Pedro Arroyo, I, 73.
San Pedro Mission, I, 251.
San Pedro Mountains, I, 73, 452, 544.
San Pedro Valley, I, 156.
San Pedro Valley ruins, I, 69, 73.
San Rafael, I, 485, 490.
San Ysidro, I, 578.
San Xavier del Bac Mission, I, 201, 229.
Santa Ana, I, 108, 194.
Santa Ana, Antonio Lopez de, I, 318, 319, 322.
Santa Ana County, I, 256, 324, 338, 345, 386, 389, 541, 548, 550.
Santa Ana de Alamillo, I, 105.
Santa Ana Indians, I, 80, 93.
Santa Ana Mission, I, 195; (illustration), I, 245.
Santa Ana Pueblo, I, 26, 86, 90, 92, 94, 138, 172, 204, 214, 216, 219, 220, 222, 350, 365.
Santa Ana Pueblo grant, I, 579.
Santa Ana ranch, I, 108.
Santa Clara, I, 197.
Santa Clara Indian Reservation, I, 56.
Santa Clara Mission (illustration), I, 243.
Santa Clara Pueblo, I, 55, 58, 126, 128, 204, 223, 256, 350, 369, 545.
Santa Clara Pueblo, governor of (illustration), I, 56.
Santa Cruz, I, 223, 226, 285.
Santa Cruz churches, I, 261.
Santa Cruz Mission, I, 195; (illustration), 221.
Santa Cruz Pueblo, I, 222.
Santa Cruz River, I, 544.
Santa Cruz Valley, I, 71, 221.
Santa Eulalia, I, 229.
Santa Fe, I, 47, 74, 180, 197, 202, 206, 217, 218, 237, 249, 275, 281, 285, 301, 305, 309, 314, 325, 335, 336, 338, 341, 347, 349, 350, 372, 379, 394, 399, 405, 412, 447, 451, 460, 481, 485, 487, 490, 494, 511, 513, 520, 522, 544, 577.
Santa Fe Academy, I, 405, 484, 486.
Santa Fe Archives, I, 285, 359.
Santa Fe Art Colony, I, 538.
Santa Fe Bank, I, 527.
Santa Fe Boarding School, I, 486.
Santa Fe Central Railway Company, I, 451.
Santa Fe County, I, 324, 338, 342, 345, 356, 385, 386, 387, 388, 393, 420, 421, 447, 452, 460, 470, 516, 541, 544, 548.
Santa Fe County Coal Mines, I, 459.
Santa Fe Creek, I, 81.
Santa Fe Fiesta, I, 236, 545.
Santa Fe Fiesta Theater (illustration), I, 528.
Santa Fe Gazette, I, 405.
Santa Fe Gold and Copper Company, I, 452.
Santa Fe Indian Industrial School, I, 433.
Santa Fe Lake (illustration), I, 3.
Santa Fe National Forest, I, 520, 543, 545, 548, 559, 579.
Santa Fe New Mexican, I, 405, 494, 535.
Santa Fe, Old Street (illustration), I, 373.
Santa Fe Orphan School, I, 487.
Santa Fe Presidio, I, 242, 260, 261, 263, 285.
Santa Fe, Proposed Fiesta Theater (illustration), I, 528.
Santa Fe Pueblos, I, 176.
Santa Fe Railroad, I, 131, 251, 446, 447, 449, 511, 534, 544, 546, 550, 552, 556, 557, 562, 564, 567, 570, 571, 573, 575, 577, 578, 580, 581, 582.
Santa Fe Republican, I, 405.
Santa Fe River, I, 544.

Santa Fe, St. Catherine Indian Schools of, I, 534.
Santa Fe, San Miguel Church (illustration), I, 193.
Santa Fe Station, Raton, New Mexico, I, 562.
Santa Fe Taos Art Colony, I, 538.
Santa Fe-Taos, art movement, I, 538.
Santa Fe University, I, 405.
Santa Fe Valley, I, 69.
Santa Fe and Northwestern Railroad, I, 578.
Santa Maria, I, 164.
Santa Maria, Vincent de, I, 269.
Santa Pueblo, I, 359.
Santa Rita, I, 456, 560.
Santa Rita Copper Mines, I, 302, 326.
Santa Rita Copper and Iron Company, I, 456.
Santa Rita Creek, I, 456.
Santa Rita del Cobre Grant, I, 284, 326.
Santa Rita Mining Company, I, 456.
Santa Rita Mines, I, 395.
Santa Rosa, I, 449, 461, 576, 582.
Santiago, I, 76.
Santo Domingo, I, 172, 175, 176, 197, 215, 253, 544, 578, 579.
Santo Domingo Indians, I, 89.
Santo Domingo Pueblo, I, 26, 69, 88, 204, 210, 214, 350, 359.
Sapello River, I, 469.
Saracino, Jose Rafael, I, 283.
Sargent, Edward, II, 5.
Sarracino, Francisco, I, 317, 319, 320, 338, 345.
Sarracino, Rafael, I, 318, 319.
Satren, Pedro, I, 234.
Saunders, Harwood P., III, 282.
Sawtelle, Marcus P., III, 97.
Scenes in Las Cruces (illustration), I, 555.
Scholan, Mrs., I, 391.
Scholle, Fred, II, 186.
School of American Archæology, I, 424. 536, 537, 538.
School of American Research, I, 74, 536, 538, 539.
School of American Research Expedition, I, 122.
School of Mines, I, 484, 488, 489.
Schools: Donations for, I, 321, 325, 364, 365; tax for, 389, 399, 400; parochial, 401, 404, 429, 473; public, 484; parochial, 484; rural, 485; Catholic, 486; for Indians, 486; mission, 486; public, 487; taxation for, 487; technical, 488; normal, 488; statistics, 489; parochial, 490, 502, 534; rural, 528, 533, 537, 552.
Schuyler Colfax, I, 562.
Scoggin, William T., II, 334.
Scolly, John, I, 379.
Schulmeister, Bertha H., III, 455.
Schulmeister, Jacob, III, 454.
Schulmeister, Jacob J., III, 454.
Scurry, W. R., I, 373.
Second National Bank of New Mexico, Santa Fe, I, 522.
Second Territorial Assembly, I, 319.
Secret Societies, 1808, I, 269.
Secularization of missions, I, 268, 327.
Sedillo, Antonio A., II, 33.
Sedition, I, 282.
Segura, Jose, I, 406.
Seligman, Arthur, III, 205.
Sena, Antonio, I, 326.
Sena, Felipe, I, 323.
Sena, Jose D., III, 362.
Senatorial districts, I, 498.
Senecu, San Antonio de, I, 191.
Senecu, I, 196.
Senecu del Sur, I, 212.
Senecu Mission, I, 191.
Senecu Mission of San Antonio, I, 197.
Senecu Pueblo, I, 209.
Senecu ruin, I, 105.
Seninger, John, III, 484.
Serna (Capt.), I, 242.
Seri Indians, I, 229.
Serrano, Francisco Perez, I, 283, 318, 319.
Seth, Julien O., III, 356.
Settlements: Spanish, Pueblo, I, 136; Indian and Spanish, 211; Spanish, 242.
Settlers, Spanish, I, 127, 128, 133, 140, 188.
Seux, Camille, I, 55.
Seven Caves, I, 116.
Seven Cities of Cibola, I, 116, 118, 119, 152, 156.
Seven Rivers, I, 569.
Seven Years' War, 1763, I, 235.
Sevilleta, I, 105, 196, 197.
Sevilleta Mission, I, 191.
Sevilleta Pueblo, I, 191, 209.
Sevilleta ruin, I, 105.
Sexton, Lena B., II, 321.
Shank, John, II, 281.
Sharp, J. H., I, 538.
Sharp, John H., I, 542.
Shattuck, Edwin S., III, 218.
Shé Ruin, I, 72.
Sheep Industry, I, 31, 260, 365, 389, 396, 470, 516, 521.
Sheep Sanitary Board, I, 426.
Sheldon, Lionel A., I, 407.
Shelley, Peter M., III, 108.
Sherman, William T., I, 127, 139, 397.
Sherwin-Williams Paint Company, I, 454.
Shiprock, I, 565.
Shirland (Capt.), I, 377.
Shoemaker, John, II, 447.
Shoshonean linquistic stock, I, 132, 133.
Shoshonean Utes, I, 120.
Shrines, I, 124.
Shroeder, H. B., I, 360.
Sia, I, 108.
Sia Boys Playing "Kainehm," Painting by Indians, Velino Shije, I, 43.
Sia Indians, I, 80, 94.
Sia Mission Church, I, 95.
Sia Pueblo, I, 26, 86, 94, 187, 204, 214, 215, 216, 219, 220, 222, 350.
Sia Pueblo Grant, I, 579.
Sibley, George C., I, 309.

Sibley, H. H., I, 367, 368, 375.
Sierra Blanca mountains, I, 561, 572.
Sierra Caballos, I, 564.
Sierra Capitan mountains, I, 561.
Sierra County, I, 393, 416, 420, 421, 447, 454, 461, 470, 554, 559, 564.
Sierra County Advocate, Hillsboro, I, 495.
Sierra County Bank of Hillsboro, I, 526, 527.
Sierra Grande Mining Company, I, 455.
Sierra Madre Mountains, I, 132.
Silva, Francisco Manuel de, I, 188.
Silver Cell Mine, I, 456.
Silver City, I, 123, 124, 395, 396, 404, 406, 447, 448, 451, 456, 487, 520, 559, 560, 575, 584.
Silver City National Bank, I, 525.
Silver City Savings Bank, I, 525, 527.
Silver City Tribune, I, 406.
Silver-Lead Ores, I, 452.
Silver Mines, I, 161, 229, 306, 395, 452, 454, 456, 457, 458, 514.
Simonson (Major), I, 362.
Simpson, Herbert L., II, 484.
Simpson (Lieut.), I, 349.
Sinaloa, Province of, I, 229.
Sinaloa, State of, I, 183.
Sisk, Edward D., III, 119.
Sisters of Charity, I, 402, 428, 486, 490.
Sisters of Loretto, I, 402, 486; III, 499.
Sisters of Mercy, I, 486.
Sisters of St. Francis, I, 490.
Sitgreaves (Lieut.), I, 357.
Skidmore, Samuel C., II, 121.
Skinner, W. C., I, 345.
Slave hunting expeditions, I, 170.
Slavery, Indians, I, 178, 345, 346, 356.
Sledge, Joseph B., III, 277.
Slough, John P., I, 374.
Smith, Frank, III, 147.
Smith, George W. R., III, 47.
Smith, Hugh N., I, 345, 354.
Smith, Jedediah, I, 304, 308.
Smith, Milton R., III, 332.
Smith, Newton M., III, 48.
Smith, Robert, I, 277.
Smyer, P. L., II, 343.
Snake Village, Rito de los Frijoles (illustration), I, 11.
Snively (Col.), I, 395.
Snively, Jacob, I, 315.
Snow, Oscar C., III, 41.
Snyder, George, II, 299.
Snyder, Karl A., II, 160.
Snyder, Thomas S., III, 463.
Social and religious organization, Pueblo Indians, I, 29.
Socorro, I, 105, 211, 324, 347, 348, 447, 460, 461, 486, 487, 513, 550, 554, 556.
Socorro Chieftain, Socorro, 495.
Socorro County, I, 104, 347, 356, 385, 386, 387, 393, 416, 420, 421, 447, 453, 460, 470, 516, 541, 554, 560, 572, 585.
Socorro del Sur, I, 212.
Socorro Hot springs ruins, I, 105.
Socorro Mission, I, 191, 197.
Socorro, Nuestra Senora de, Mission, I, 126.
Socorro Peak Mining District, I, 454.
Socorro Pueblo, I, 209, 365.
Socorro State Bank, I, 526.
Soils, I, 4; characteristics of, 4.
Sonora, I, 151, 153, 160, 234.
Sonora Valley, I, 156, 157.
Sossa, Alonso de, I, 179.
Sosa, Castano de, I, 70.
Sosa, Enrique J., II, 258.
Sosa, Gaspar Castena de, I, 76, 89, 92, 163, 170, 171, 172.
Sosa, Samuel, II, 259.
Sotelo, Ignacio, I, 275, 285.
South Homestake Mine, I, 453.
Southern Apache Indians, I, 129, 138, 139.
Southern Canal, I, 465.
Southern Keresan Pueblos, I, 96.
Southern National Highway, I, 514.
Southern Pacific Railroad, I, 131, 445, 446, 447, 449, 511, 557, 560, 575, 584, 586.
Southern Ute Indian reservation, I, 566.
Southwestern Trails, I, 514.
Sowder, Robert C., III, 278.
Spain, Indian Policy of, I, 134; attempt to suppress Tribal Religion, 201, 248.
Spaniards, coming of, I, 74; attempts to drive from Jemez country, 80, 132, 134, 151, 157, 177, 178, 191, 218.
Spaniards defense in Pueblo Revolt, I, 204.
Spanish alliance with Comanche, I, 255.
Spanish-American Normal School, El Rito, I, 431, 489, 532, 544.
Spanish-American War, I, 443.
Spanish Archives of New Mexico, I, 135.
Spanish Archives of New Mexico, I, 285.
Spanish Colonial government, I, 317.
Spanish Colony, 1609-1680, I, 183.
Spanish Control, I, 248.
Spanish expeditions, earliest, I, 76.
Spanish Explorers, I, 149, 539.
Spanish and French Rivalry, I, 228.
Spanish land grants, I, 474.
Spanish Missions, I, 229.
Spanish political system, I, 267.
Spanish population, early, I, 182, 281.
Spanish refugees of Pueblo Revolt, I, 206.
Spanish Regime, last years of, I, 267.
Spanish Rule, I, 216.
Spanish settlements, I, 110, 132, 136, 211, 212, 214, 242, 257, 263, 265.
Spanish settlers, I, 57, 98, 127, 128, 133, 140, 188, 201, 203, 220, 222, 240, 260.
Spanish trade policy, I, 233.
Sparks, Richard, I, 273.
Speakers' Bureau, I, 509.
Sprague, J. T., I, 360.
Sprecher, Ira N., II, 272.
Springer, I, 449, 571.
Springer, Charles, I, 509.
Springer, Frank, I, 538.
Springer, Harvey, II, 431.

Springer, banks, I, 524.
Springer Ditch Company, I, 519.
Springer Land and Irrigation Company, I, 519.
Springer, State Reform School for Boys, I, 563.
Springer Reservoir, I, 469.
Springers, I, 563.
Springs, I, 539.
Spruce, I, 10.
Stackhouse, Powell, Jr., II, 465.
Staked Plains, I, 2, 582.
Stanton, Charles H., III, 425.
State Banks, I, 526.
State Bank of Capitan, I, 527.
State Bank of Des Moines, I, 527.
State Board of Equalization, I, 502.
State Canvassing Board, I, 497.
State College, I, 558.
State Constitution, 1910, I, 347, 414.
State Council of Defense, I, 509.
State Highway Commission, I, 504, 512.
Statehood Conventions, I, 411.
State Knitting Committee, I, 509.
State Lands, 1922, I, 533.
State Legal Committee, I, 509.
State Miners' Hospital at Raton, I, 563.
State Museum of New Mexico, I, 285, 537, 538.
State National Bank of Albuquerque, I, 525.
State National Bank of Artesia, I, 524.
State National Bank of Carlsbad, I, 525.
State of Sinaloa, I, 183.
State of Mexico, I, 317.
State Reform School for Boys, Springer, I, 563.
State School of Mines, II, 218.
States Schools, I, 533.
State Schools for the Deaf, Santa Fe (illustration), I, 532.
State Tax Commission, I, 502.
State Teachers' College, III, 51.
State Trust and Savings Bank of Albuquerque, I, 527.
State University of New Mexico, I, 528.
Statistics; Santa Fe trade, 1822-1846, I, 306; schools, I, 533.
Statistics, schools, I, 533.
Steele, John, I, 404.
Steins Peak Range, I, 584.
Stephenson, Hugh, I, 458.
Stephenson-Bennet Mines, I, 458.
Stevens, John E., II, 432.
Stevenson, Mrs., I, 95.
Stewart, Augustus B., II, 417.
Stitzel, David, I, 396.
Stock raising, I, 183, 260, 365, 385, 389, 462, 470, 573, 576, 577, 584, 585.
Stock ranches, I, 182.
Stofer, John William, II, 475.
Stone, Edmund T., III, 468.
Stone Pueblo, I, 114.
Stoneroad (Col.), I, 389.
Storage dams, I, 518.
Stovall, Richard F., III, 118.
Stover, E. S., I, 458, 494.
Stover, Elias S., III, 397.
Stratton, Maud B., III, 104.
Streicher, Albert R., II, 423.
Strong, Edward J., II, 167.
Strong, John R., II, 91.
Strong, W. B., I, 392.
Strong, William W., II, 62.
Stroup, Hamer A., III, 214.
Strover, William, I, 443.
Strumquist, Niles J., II, 86.
Stuart, James G., III, 43.
Sublette, Milton, I, 303.
Sublette, William, I, 304.
Sub-tropical calms, I, 7.
Sugarite Mine, I, 459.
Sullivan, Charles, III, 142.
Sullivan, John, III, 140.
Sully, J. M., I, 509.
Suma Indians, I, 212, 214, 245.
Summit Mine, I, 457.
Sumner, E. V., I, 355, 361.
Sun, Albuquerque, I, 494.
Sun, Socorro, I, 495.
Sunday Schools, I, 404.
Sundt, M. M., III, 131.
Supreme court, I, 354.
Surveys, I, 469.
Surveys of Parke and Pope, I, 358.
Surveys by United States, I, 358.
Swartz, William F., III, 319.
Sweeney, Noel S., II, 83.
Swope, Edwin B., II, 195.

Tabira, I, 103, 194.
Tabira Mission (Gran Quivira), I, 125, 191.
Tabira Mission wall (illustration), I, 189.
Tabira Pueblo, I, 102, 191.
Tafoya, Ed C., II, 490.
Tafoya, Jose Miguel, I, 280.
Tafoya, Ysidro, II, 89.
Tagle, Bernardo de Bustamante y, I, 234.
Taiban Creek, I, 577, 582.
Tajique, I, 101, 102, 197.
Tajique Arroyo, I, 101.
Tajique Pueblo, I, 26, 100, 101, 191.
Talaban, Juan de, I, 89.
Taladrid, Damasio, I, 363.
Tamariz, Felipe, I, 232.
Tamaron, Pedro, I, 247.
Tamaya, I, 93.
Tamos, Province of, I, 169.
Tano, I, 197.
Tano Indians, I, 69, 207, 214, 215, 218, 221, 223, 226.
Tano Pueblos, I, 204.
Tanoan linquistic stock, I, 26; Tiwa, Towa, Tewa, 26.
Taos, I, 96, 132, 183, 206, 281, 310, 315, 325, 342, 347, 405, 461, 486, 487, 490, 520, 538, 541, 563.
Taos County, I, 324, 338, 342, 345, 356, 386, 393, 420, 421, 447, 452, 460, 470, 516, 541, 558.
Taos Indians, I, 192, 206, 215, 262, 265, 541, 542.

Taos Junction, I, 542.
Taos Mission, I, 282, 327.
Taos, Mission Ruin at (illustration), I, 184.
Taos Peak, I, 562.
Taos Pueblo, I, 26, 45, 176, 188, 197, 223, 231, 240, 359, 365.
Taos Pueblos (illustration), I, 25.
Tapia, Leocadio, II, 230.
Tarahumares Mission, I, 183.
Tariff of 1837, I, 306.
Tatum, I, 567.
Taupert, Robert J., II, 260.
Taxation, I, 237, 258, 282, 306, 321, 324, 365, 374, 388, 389; railroads exempt from, 1878, 392, 400, 402, 415, 425, 442, 487, 502, 512, 514.
Taylor, Livingston N., III, 403.
Tecolote, I, 335, 343.
Teel, Hugh A., II, 308.
Tegua (Tewa) Pueblos, I, 176.
Tehua Province, I, 176.
Tejanos, I, 316.
Telegraph Lines, I, 406.
Tenabo, I, 194.
Tenabo Mission, I, 102.
Tenabo Pueblo, I, 191.
Teran, Mier y, I, 270.
Tenorio, Julian, I, 319.
Territorial Assembly, Sixth, I, 320.
Territorial Banks, I, 525.
Territorial Board of Education, I, 429.
Territorial Board of Equalization, I, 423.
Territorial Board of Medical Examiners, I, 426.
Territorial Bureau of Immigration, I, 411.
Territorial Commerce Commission, I, 422.
Territorial Commission of Irrigation, I, 463.
Territorial Conservation Commission, I, 424.
Territorial debt, I, 389, 442.
Territorial Executive Officers, I, 422.
Territorial Government, I, 333, 344, 345, 347, 353.
Territorial Highway Commission, I, 425.
Territorial Legislature, I, 387, 541.
Territorial Library Board, I, 424.
Territorial Museum, I, 424.
Territorial Road Commission, I, 512
Territorial University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, I, 489.
Territory of Arizona, I, 1.
Territory of Colorado, I, 1.
Territory of New Mexico, I, 336, 347, 353, 382.
Terry, Julius D., II, 322.
Tesuque, I, 195.
Tesuque Church in 1860, Painting by Carlos Vierra, I, 65.
Tesuque Mission, I, 198.
Tesuque Pueblo, I, 65, 204, 218, 219, 220, 222, 226, 350, 545.
Tewa Indians, I, 69, 204, 206, 207, 215, 218, 219, 223.
Tewa Pueblos, I, 96, 198, 215, 222, 226, 253.
Tewa, Tanoan linquistic stock, I, 26; dialects of, 26.
Texan attacks on New Mexican settlements, I, 314.
Texan invasion, I, 370.
Texan-Santa Fe expedition, 1841, I, 310.
Texan Santa Fe expeditions, I, 311.
Texas and Mexico difficulties, I, 315.
Texas claim to Rio Grande boundary, I, 311.
Texas Expeditions, I, 301.
Texas Pacific Railroad, I, 447, 448.
Texico, I, 581.
Texico National Bank, I, 524.
Texline, I, 571.
Teypana, I, 105.
Tezmalaca, I, 270.
Thatcher, M. D., I, 458.
Thatcher Mine, I, 458.
Thayer, Charles L., III, 429.
Thirty Stope Mine, I, 455.
Thomason, Chesley H., II, 288.
Thompson, Frank N., III, 343.
Thoreau, I, 573.
Thornton, William T., I, 407, 494.
Thorpe, Wendell P., III, 163.
Three Rivers, I, 561.
Thunder Mountain, I, 119, 120, 191, 216.
Thurston, L. F., I, 338.
Tierra Amarilla, I, 130, 461, 543.
Tierra Amarilla Mission, I, 490.
Tierra Amarilla Southern Railway, I, 449.
Tierra Blanca creek, I, 564.
Tigner, Richard M., III, 30.
Tigua (Tiwa) district, I, 176.
Tiguex, I, 98, 159, 167.
Tiguex Pueblos, I, 157.
Tijeras, I, 451.
Tijeras Canyon, I, 550.
Tijeras Fine Sandy Loam, I, 4.
Timber, I, 579.
Timber zone, I, 13.
Times, Portales, I, 495.
Tinoco, Manuel, I, 70.
Tipton, Will M., I, 214.
Tiptonville, I, 403, 486.
Tiwa Indians, I, 96, 238, 244.
Tiwa language, Tanoan linguistic stock, I, 26
Tiwa Pueblos, I, 96, 102, 191, 198.
Tobacco, I, 258.
Todhunter, James D., III, 486.
Tolar, I, 577, 582.
Tolby, F. J., I, 404.
Tomasito, I, 344.
Tome, I, 105, 324, 347.
Tompiro Pueblo, I, 198.
Torrance, Francis J., I, 579.
Torrance, I, 451, 580.
Torrance County, I, 419, 420, 421, 461, 552, 579.
Torrance Mine, I, 454.
Torre, Diego Perez de la, I, 152.
Torres, Tomas de, I, 67.
Torres Thomas de, I, 196.
Tovar, Pedro de, I, 156, 158, 159.
Towa language, Tanoan linguistic stock, I, 26.

Towa Pueblos, I, 96.
Tracy, Francis G., III, 165.
Trade, I, 233, 258, 302, 305, 310, 350, 361, 379.
Trade Relations, I, 245, 249, 277, 304, 305, 311, 340.
Trade Routes, I, 249, 251, 255, 308.
Trade with Indians, I, 259, 283.
Trade with United States forbidden, I, 271.
Traders, French, I, 235.
Trading Expeditions, I, 302, 312.
Trahey, Daniel, III, 323.
Trail to Prehistoric Pueblo on top of Inscription Rock (illustration), I, 117.
Trails, I, 307, 308, 352, 357.
Trampas, I, 343.
Tramperas, schools, I, 486.
Tranquilino Luna, I, 408.
Transition Zone, I, 12; native plants and animals, I, 12.
Transportation, I, 305, 306, 307, 352, 357, 395, 445, 449, 512, 513, 542.
Treat, A. R., III, 63.
Treat, Ralph M., II, 437.
Treaties, I, 127, 130, 139, 262, 264.
Treaty, Cession, 1868, I, 139.
Treaty of Cordoba, I, 271, 317.
Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, I, 1, 138, 140, 344, 348, 351, 356, 359.
Trenaquel Pueblo, I, 105.
Trenaquel ruin, I, 105.
Tres Cerros Mountains, I, 561.
Tres Hermanas Mining District, I, 457.
Trevino, Governor, I, 201.
Trevino, Juan Francisco de, I, 182.
Trias (Sia) Province, I, 176.
Tribal ceremonies, I, 87.
Tribal Range of Indians, I, 130.
Tribal religion, attempts by Spanish to suppress, I, 201.
Tribal religious, social and political organization, I, 201.
Tri-Bullion Mining and Smelting Company, I, 454.
Tribune, Albuquerque, I, 494.
Tribune Citizen, Albuquerque, I, 494.
Trimble, Lawrence S., III, 460.
Trimble, William L., II, 414.
Troncoso, Vincente, I, 264.
Troutman, J. C., I, 530.
Truchas Mission, I, 490.
Truchas Peake, I, 558, 559.
Truder, Thomas V., II, 269.
Trujillo, Adolfo, II, 259.
Trujillo, Ambrosio, III, 488.
Trujillo, Antonio, I, 341, 342.
Trujillo, Blas, I 323.
Trujillo, Vilialdo G., III, 52.
Tsanwari Pueblo, I, 71.
Tsiama, I, 108.
Tubac, I, 229.
Tucumcari, I, 449, 513, 570, 577.
Tucumcari Creek, I, 576.
Tuerto Pueblo, I, 177.
Tularosa, I, 561, 572.
Tularosa Indian reservation, I, 399.
Tularosa Mining District, I, 458.
Tularosa Range, I, 585.
Tularosa River, I, 129.
Tularosa Valley, I, 2.
Tularosa Valley Reservation, I, 139.
Tulloch, David H., III, 182.
Tumcacori Mission, I, 201.
Tunque Ruin, I, 73.
Tunstel, John H., I, 391.
Tupatu, Luis, I, 50.
Turknett, James W., III, 219.
Turknett, Ruby, III, 221.
Turley, Simeon, I, 342.
Turquoise, I, 458.
Turquoise Mine, I, 452.
Turner, Fletcher E., III, 382.
Turner, John W., III, 59.
Twitchell, R. E., I, 285, 411, 537.
Tyrone, I, 560.
Tzenatay Ruin, I, 70.

Ubates, Province of, I, 169.
Ugalde, Juan de, I, 252.
Ugarte, I, 252, 255, 264.
Ulibarri, Amador, II, 235.
Ulivarri, Santiago, I, 312, 320.
Ulloa, Francisco de, I, 154.
Ulloa, Lope de, I, 175.
Una del Gato Coal Mine, I, 459.
Union Bank of Las Cruces, I, 526.
Union Coal Company, I, 459.
Union County, I, 417, 420, 421, 460, 470, 500, 540, 545, 558, 562, 570, 576, 586.
Union Pacific Railroad, I, 392, 445.
Union Trust and Savings Bank of Clayton, I, 527.
United Brethren Church, I, 534.
United States Army hospital, Fort Bayard, I, 560.
United States Biological Survey, I, 509.
United States Control, I, 334, 336.
United States Court of Private Land Claims, I, 474.
United States Forest Service, I, 530.
United States General Army Hospital, Fort Bayard, I, 433.
United States, Indian Policy of, I, 134, 137.
United States Indian Schools, I, 533.
United States Land Commission, I, 432.
United States Land Office, I, 94.
United States Marine Hospital, I, 561.
United States Reclamation Bureau, I, 516, 518.
United States Reclamation Service, I, 465, 469.
United States, Reservation policy of, I, 131.
United States, surveys by, I, 358.
United States treaty with Indian tribes, I, 127.
United War Work Fund, I, 510.
University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, I, 429, 484; (illustration), 488, 552.
Upper Conchos Valley, I, 163.

Upper Pecos Valley, I, 2, 541, 546.
Upper Rio Grande Valley, I, 163, 218.
Upper Sonora Valley, I, 183, 200.
Upper Sonoran Zone, I, 2, 11; native plants and animals, 11.
Urdinola, Francisco de, I, 161, 162, 173.
Uribarri, Juan de, I, 226, 231.
Urioste, Jose, I, 277.
Urrisola, Manuel Portillo, I, 228, 237, 242.
Urton Lake, I, 469.
Urton Lake Irrigation project, I, 518.
Ute Creek, I, 394, 571.
Ute Indians, I, 47, 80, 133, 135, 136, 137, 138, 220, 231, 240, 241, 262, 284, 349, 350.
Ute Park, I, 451.
Ute Valley, I, 571.

Vaca, Antonio, I, 280.
Vaca, Cabeza de, I, 118, 149, 150, 152, 163.
Vaca, Luis Cabeza de, I, 303.
Valdes, I, 182.
Valdes, Cuerbo y, I, 65, 71.
Valdes, Francisco Curvo y, I, 199, 226.
Valdez, Emilio, II, 477.
Valdez, Jesus M., II, 455.
Valdez, Narciso, II, 262.
Valdez, Paulita V., II, 263.
Velasco, Fernando de, I, 76, 202.
Velasco, Luis de, I, 111; (illustration), 162; 171, 172, 173.
Valencia, I, 552, 573.
Valencia County, I, 104, 324, 338, 345, 356, 385, 386, 393, 408, 418, 420, 421, 460, 470, 516, 539, 541, 545, 552, 579.
Valle, Francisco Antonio Marin, I, 228, 237, 246.
Valle, Garcia del, I, 284.
Valley, San Juan, I, 126.
Valleys, I, 2.
Valliant, George S., II, 144.
Valverde, Antonio, I, 224, 230, 236, 245.
Valverde, I, 404.
Valverde y Cosio, Antonio, I, 63.
Valverde, Paz, I, 501.
Van Atta, John R., II, 139.
Van Goethem, George C., II, 275.
Vargas, Diego, Merques re la Nava de Brazinas de, I, 199, 214, 225.
Vargas, Francisco, I, 222.
Vargas, Francisco diaz de, I, 170.
Vasquez, Baroney, I, 276.
Vaughn, I, 570.
Veeder, John D., II, 105.
Vegetables, I, 12.
Vellacott, Frank W., II, 143.
Vencill, Joseph K., III, 38.
Ventacur, I, 77, 194.
Vera, Domingo de, I, 195.
Vera, Joseph de, I, 277.
Vera, Juan Domingo de, I, 71.
Verde, Cuerno, I, 257.
Vergara, Ignacio, I, 282, 284.
Vegara, Ignacio Sanchez, I, 93.
Vermejo River, I, 469, 562.
Vernon, I, 562.
Vial, Pedro, I, 249, 255, 273.
Viana, Francis, I, 273.
Vicente, Augustin, I, 327.
Vickers, Fred D., II, 123.
Victoria Mining District, I, 457.
Victoria Mountains, I, 575.
Vierra, Carlos, I, 538.
Vigil, Antonio, I, 322.
Vigil, Cornelio, I, 338, 342.
Vigil, Donaciano, I, 326, 333, 338; (illustration), 339; 342, 345.
Vigil, Gregorio, I, 280, 313.
Vigil, Juan, I, 322.
Vigil, Juan Bautista, I, 318, 336.
Vigil, Juan N., III, 307.
Vigil, Reyes, I, 281.
Villa, I, 576.
Villa Nueva de Santa Cruz, I, 221.
Villages, Hopi, I, 177.
Villagra, Gaspar perez de, I, 177, 181.
Villagran, I, 111.
Villanueva, Fernando de, I, 182.
Villasenor, Jose Chacon Medina Salazar y, I, 228, 235, 242.
Villazur, Pedro de, I, 231, 232.
Villazur expedition, I, 232, 236.
Vincente de Zaldivar, I, 179.
Virginia Mining District, I, 457.
Vizcarra, Antonio, I, 309, 317, 318, 326.
Vizcaya, Nueva, I, 163, 182, 252, 324.
Vorenberg, Simon, II, 205.

Waddingham, Wilson, I, 482.
Wagner, J. H., I, 530.
Wagon Mound, I, 559.
Waldo, David, I, 338.
Waldo, Lawrence L., I, 342.
Waldo, I, 447.
Wall, T. W., I, 443.
Wallace, Lew, I, 407.
Walten (Capt.), I, 340.
Walter, Paul A. F., III, 338.
Walton, William B., I, 501; II, 38.
Ward, Marjorie H., III, 187.
Warfield, Charles A., I, 314.
Warren, Adelina O., I, 501.
Wars, Mixton, I, 154; Indian, 183, 262; Lincoln County, 391.
Washington (Col.), I, 349.
Washington, J. M., I, 127.
Washington, John M., I, 333, 351, 352.
Washita Valley, I, 273.
Wasson, W. D., II, 502.
Water area, I, 3.
Water Rights, I, 425.
Water-supply zones, I, 13.
Watrous, I, 546, 558.
Watson, Hollis G., III, 232.
Watson, H. Victor, II, 514.
Watt, Bessie, I, 530.

Watts, John S., I, 387.
Watts, Randolph E., II, 306.
Weakley, H. W., I, 443.
Weaver Mine, I, 458.
Weaving, baskets and cotton cloth, I, 31, 128, 284.
Webb, James J., I, 379.
Weber, Frank, III, 424.
Weightman, R. H., I, 339, 347, 355.
Weil, Nathan, II, 476.
Weil, Sidney M., II, 129.
Wells, E. H., I, 532.
Wells, Edgar H., II, 218.
Wengert, Julian, II, 105.
Wertheim, Herman, II, 315.
Wertheim, Joseph, III, 230.
Wesley, William W., III, 284.
West, Ben A., III, 297.
West, Noah S., III, 497.
West Side Canal System, I, 468.
Westerly winds, I, 7.
Western Apache Indians, I, 140.
Western College, Artesia, I, 490.
Western School for Private Secretaries, I, 533.
Wharton (Capt.), I, 309.
Wheat, I, 471, 519.
Whipple, A. W., I, 357.
Whitcomb, O. J., III, 414.
White, Albion C., II, 109.
White, Alvan N., III, 137.
White, Forrest H., II, 327.
White, J. L., I, 540.
White, J. Phelps, III, 198.
White, Mary L., II, 367.
White, Roy L., III, 385.
White Mountain Reserve, I, 139.
White Mountains, I, 2.
White Oaks Academy, I, 485.
White Oaks Mining district, I, 396, 453.
Whitewater, I, 448, 560.
Whitin Hall School, Santa Fe, I, 485.
Whiting, H. R., I, 406.
Whitney, J. Parker, I, 456, 480.
Wientge, F. W., I, 443.
Wiggins, Mrs. Cordie, II, 31.
Wiggins, James H., II, 27.
Wilkinson, I, 273.
Willard, I, 461, 580.
Williams, George H, I, 483.
Williams, Isaac, I, 302.
Williams, Myrtle L., II, 346.
Willock (Lieut.-Col.), I, 344.
Willow Mine, I, 451, 459.
Willson, Horace G., II, 498.
Willson, J. W., I, 530.
Willson, James W., III, 181.
Wilson, Francis C., III, 238.
Wilson, Percy, II, 360.
Winans, George M., III, 375.
Winston, Frank H., III, 172.
Winters, Jack, I, 396.
Witt, William F., III, 184.
Wolfskill, William, I, 302, 303.
Wollard, Nathaniel F., III, 286.
Woman's Committee, I, 509.
Wood, John B., III, 347.
Wooden Combs Inlaid with Turquoise and Jet from Hawwikku (illustration), I, 119.
Woodhull, Edwin A., II, 362.
Woods, Robert C., II, 478.
Wool, I, 260, 516.
Workman, William, I, 311.
World War, I, 508.
Wright, George, I, 370.
Wright, Ira L., II, 364.
Wyatt, Dillard H., III, 167.

Xaramillo, Joseph, I, 281.
Xavier, Francisco, I, 201.
Xongopavi, I, 195.

Yaqui Valley, I, 151.
Ybargaray, Antonio de, I, 76.
Yellow pine, I, 10.
Yersin, Henry W., II, 444.
Yeso Creek, I, 582.
Ygnacio Sotelo, I, 120.
Ynojos, Alferez Augustin de, I, 191.
Young, Ewing, I, 302, 304.
Young, Henry W., II, 371.
Young, James T., III, 114.
Y. M. C. A., I, 510, 529.
Y. W. C. A., I, 510.
Yount, George, I, 303.
Yuma Indians, I, 251.

Zacatecas, I, 161, 172, 269.
Zaldivar, Juan de, I, 110, 111, 154, 175, 176, 177, 178, 179, 181.
Zamora, Felipe, II, 194.
Zamora, Francisco de, I, 47, 50.
Zapata, Diego de Vargas, I, 199.
Zarate, Ascencio de, I, 50.
Zavala, Martin de, I, 183.
Zinc, I, 396, 454, 458, 514.
Zipias Indians, I, 190.
Zisneros, Alonso Ximenes de, I, 222.
Zotylo, Felipe, I, 182.
Zuni, I, 116, 405, 514.
Zuni Indians, I, 80, 118, 156, 165, 190, 191, 216, 217, 223, 225, 243.
Zuni Kokko Society, I, 40.
Zuni, Mission at, I, 225.
Zuni Mountain Railway, I, 573.
Zuni Mountains, I, 2, 552, 573.
Zuni National Forests, I, 433, 472, 473.
Zuni Pueblo Reservation, I, 115, 554.
Zuni Pueblos, I, 115, 118, 138, 176, 180, 185, 188, 190, 198, 205, 214, 223, 224, 285.
Zuni River, I, 4, 552, 573.
Zuni Valley, I, 115, 116.
Zunian linguistic stock, I, 26, 116.
Zuniga, Garcia de San Francisco y, I, 126, 191, 192.
Zuniga, Joseph, I, 255.
Zutucapan, I, 110, 177.

History of New Mexico

CHAPTER I

THE LAND OF NEW MEXICO

LOCATION

The delimitation of the boundaries of New Mexico occurred between 1848 and 1863. The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1848 provided definite limits which were changed in 1854 with the Gadsden Purchase; in 1861 when the northeastern part was included in the new Territory of Colorado, and in 1863 when the western half was cut off to form the Territory of Arizona. Artificial boundaries rather than natural ones are characteristic of the new states of the West. The middle of the channel of the Rio Grande, from the thirty-second parallel of north latitude to the parallel of 31°, 47′, constitutes New Mexico's only natural boundary. From the latter intersection the line runs west 100 miles to a point, thence south to the parallel of 31°, 20′, thence along this line to the thirty-second meridian west from Washington (which is about three miles west of the 109th meridian west from Greenwich); thence north along the thirty-second meridian to the thirty-seventh parallel, thence east along the thirty-seventh parallel to the 103d meridian west from Greenwich, thence south along the 103d meridian to the thirty-second parallel, thence along this line to the middle of the channel of the Rio Grande. Thus physical features play a small part in the boundary delimitation of the present State of New Mexico.

This technical location places the state in the southern border tier of the commonwealths of the United States, the southwestern corner being 400 miles, in a straight line, from the Pacific Ocean; and the southeastern part 500 miles from the Gulf of Mexico. Physical characteristics, plant and animal life, as well as the activities of man are, in a large part, determined by this location.

LAND FORMS

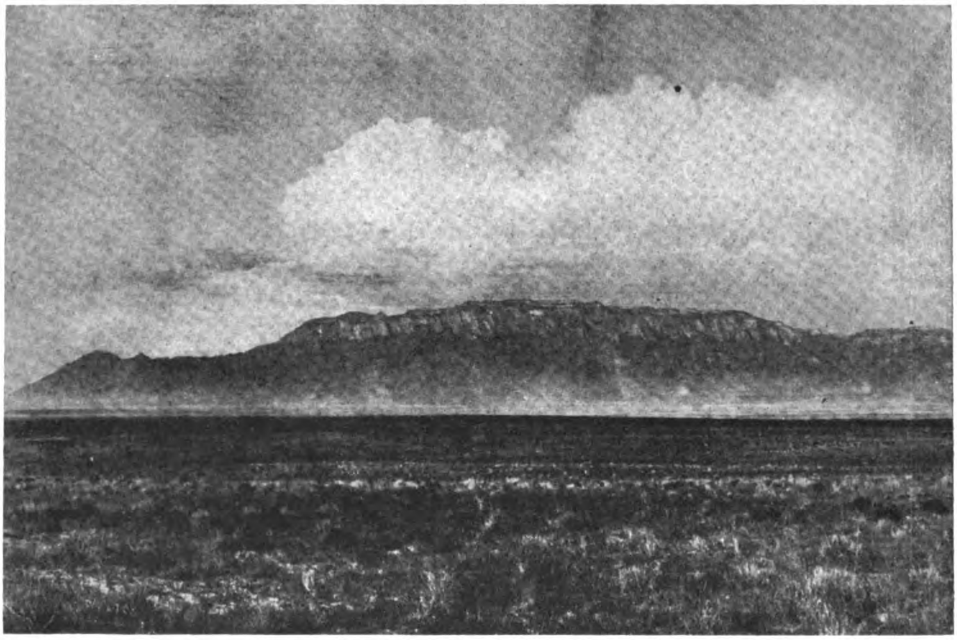
A land area of 122,503 square miles, about 350 miles square, or 78,401,921 acres, gives New Mexico fourth place when the states are ranked according to size. The borders of the state are characterized by high plateaus cut by deep canyons, while in the central part faulted mountains surround comparatively level areas filled with alluvial deposits. Between the Rio Grande and the Staked Plains the mountains form a more continuous range than on the west side of the river where the elevated areas form the main continental divide. The Sangre de Cristo mass is a part of the Colorado Mountains which extend into New Mexico slightly east of the north central part of the state and east of the Rio Grande. South of this northern mass two series of ridges extend to the southern boundary: the one near the Rio Grande, called in places from north to south the Sandia, the Manzano, the San Andres, the Oscura, and the Organ mountains; while the eastern group consists of the Hills of Pedernal, the White, the Sacramento, and the Guadalupe mountains.

On the west side of the Rio Grande the San Juan Mountains dominate the country north of the Chama River. A second somewhat smaller mass lies between the Chama and the Jemez River, the Jemez Mountains. Across the Puerco the Mount Taylor Mountains carry the main divide in a southwestern direction to the Chusca and Zuñi Mountains, which are continued farther south in one of the largest mountain masses of the state, the Mogollons, with the San Mateo and the Magdalena as outlying ridges in the direction of the Rio Grande, and the Black Range forming the southeastern part. In the extreme southwestern part of the state the western mountains terminate in several parallel ridges; the Burro, the Pyramid, the Big Hatchet, and the Peloncillo mountains.

The valleys of the state may be divided into three groups, namely: those of the Canadian and Transition zones; the plateau valleys of the high altitudes which fall in the Upper Sonoran Zone; and the valleys of the lower altitudes and the lower latitudes which come within the Lower Sonoran Zone. The upper Canadian Valley, and the Upper Pecos Valley in the Sangre de Cristo Range, the upper valleys of the Hondo, Felix, Peñasco, and other western valleys of the Pecos, are of the first group lying east of the Rio Grande. The canyons of the Rio Grande are largely of this same group from the northern border to the southern end of White Rock Canyon. West of the main divide, the upper parts of the San Juan, the Little Colorado, and the Gila Basin are of the mountain canyon type.

The upper Sonoran valleys include the lower mountain areas and the regions of the plateaus varying in altitude from 5,000 to 8,000 feet. All of the valleys above mentioned have intermediate sections that fall within this second group. The most northern lower Sonoran area is the Canadian Valley in Quay County. The Pecos Valley from Santa Rosa southward has a gradual widening strip that falls within this zone. Other areas of lower Sonoran valleys are the Tularosa Valley between the Sacramento and the San Andreas Mountains, the Rio Grande from Socorro to El Paso, and a part of the Gila Valley.

Rio Grande River Scene.
From this River the Valley obtains its Water for Irrigation.



Sandia Mountains
On the East of Albuquerque are the Mountains, on the west the River.

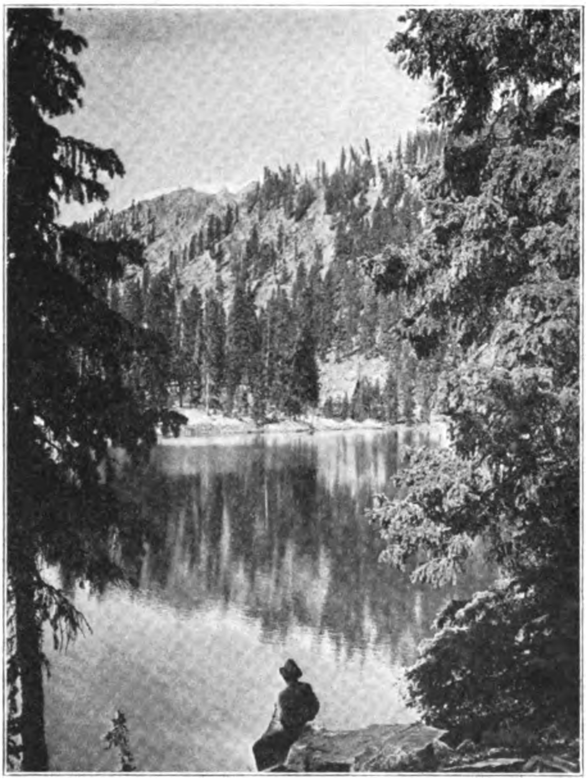


Photo by courtesy U. S. Forest Service.

SANTA FE LAKE

River divides following the tops of the ranges and high plateaus run generally north and south but many of the minor divides have an east and west direction. Of the most important there may be mentioned the divides between the Pecos and the Canadian Valleys; between the Pecos and Tularosa Valley; between the Tularosa and the Rio Grande; and between the Rio Grande and the San Juan, Little Colorado and Gila Valleys. This last named divide is a part of the main continental division. These western valleys are separated by divides running east and west.

BODIES OF WATER

The water area of New Mexico is smaller than any other state in the Union, consisting of 131 square miles, according to the 1920 census. The rivers are the only important bodies of water that make up a part of the physiography of the state. Lakes such as Otero Soda Lake, Crater Lake in Catron County, and the saline lagoons and marshes of Torrance and Lea counties are important from the standpoint of their mineral deposits rather than as bodies of water. With the exception of the comparatively narrow valleys of the Rio Grande and the Pecos River, the New Mexico rivers occupy canyons that form the upper courses of rivers which, in their lower channels in other states, become more important.

In the northeastern part of the state, in Union County, two of the branches of the Arkansas River have their sources. These are the Cimarron and the North Canadian River. A third branch of the Arkansas, the Canadian, flows south through the center of Colfax County, across the eastern part of Mora and San Miguel counties, and the northern part of Quay County. As the Canadian drains the eastern part of the Sangre de Cristo Range, so the Pecos River receives the water from the southern part of the range and flows slightly east of south across San Miguel, Guadalupe, De Baca, Chaves, and Eddy counties, increased by the streams from the Sacramento and Guadalupe mountains.

The Rio Grande is the only important river in New Mexico that does not have its source within the state. It enters New Mexico in a deep canyon a short distance to the east of the 106th meridian. It flows through the center of Taos County, across the southeastern corner of Rio Arriba County, and the northwestern part of Santa Fe County. White Rock Canyon marks the end of the gorge, from which the river flows across a high plain through the southeastern part of Sandoval County, the middle of Bernalillo County, the eastern part of Valencia County, the middle of Socorro and Sierra counties, and diagonally from northwest to southeast across Doña Ana County. The branches of the Rio Grande, with the exception of the Chama, Jemez, and the Puerco flowing from the west, are short rivers draining the Mogollon Mountains, and others.

On the western side of the continental divide the largest area is drained by the San Juan River and its tributaries, La Plata, Animas, Piedra, Chusca and other rivers in the northwestern part of the state. The smallest of the western drainage areas is made up of the Rio Puerco of the West and the Zuñi River which are the upper branches of the Little Colorado. The Gila River and its main branch in New Mexico, the San Francisco, receive the water from the western side of the Mogollon Mountains.

SOILS

Detailed information concerning the soils of New Mexico has been compiled only for the Middle Rio Grande Valley, Mesilla Valley, and the Pecos Valley in the vicinity of Roswell and Carlsbad. This absence of soil surveys results in some uncertainty as to the nature of soils, and their classification. Of the thirteen soil regions of the United States, three fall within the boundaries of New Mexico. The Rocky Mountain Soil Region covers almost all of the northern and western parts of the state, as well as the mountain areas in the central and south central sections. The Arid Southwest Soil Region includes the southwestern part and the valleys of central and eastern New Mexico. The great Plains Soil Region occupies a strip along the Pecos Valley, widening into the Canadian and becoming a very narrow area in the extreme northeastern part of the state. The soils of New Mexico have also been classified under the sub-divisions; arid soils, dark colored prairie soils, and light colored timbered soils. The first of these classes includes almost all of New Mexico. The second class is present as a narrow strip along the eastern border of the state, and the third in the high mountain sections. For a large part of New Mexico these main divisions have not been subdivided except in the few cases mentioned in which soil surveys have been made.

The principal characteristics of the arid soils of New Mexico are: a large amount of mineral matter; a small amount of organic matter; a gray or light color; deep soils; a small quantity of clay, unless formed from clay deposits; a less silicious nature of the sand than is common, and a marked degree of productivity when irrigated.

The soils of the Middle Rio Grande Valley between San Felipe and La Joya have been surveyed by the United States Bureau of Soils. This area will be used as an example of soils in one of the valleys of the Arid Southwest Soil Region. For purposes of division, soils are divided into series, classes, and types. The series names for soils of this region are Tijeras, Anthony, Gila, and the Brazito. The classes are formed by different combinations of sand, loam, and clay. The types are the units of division and result from combining a given series with a given class; as, Gila Clay. The following types of soils were found to exist in the Middle Rio Grande Valley: Tijeras Fine Sandy

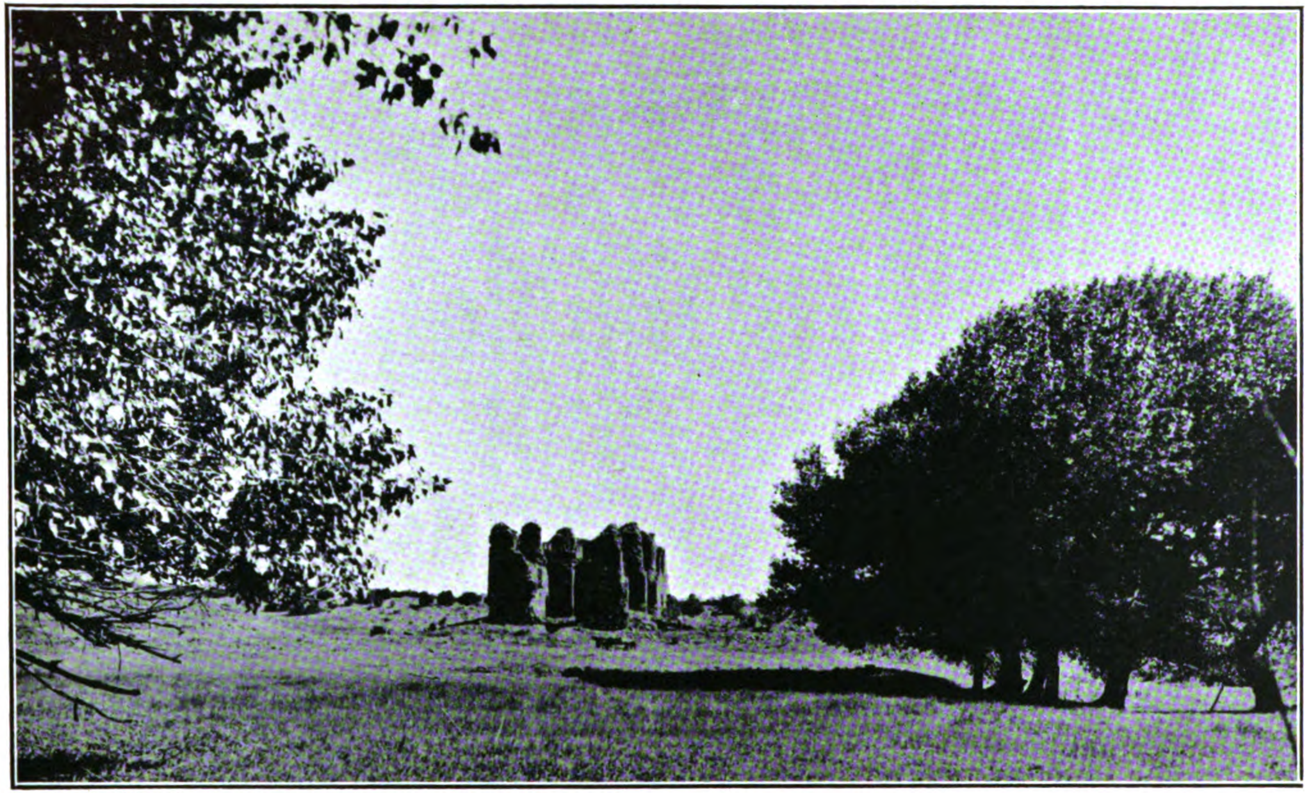


Photo by Museum Staff.

QUARRY MISSION CHURCH RUINS

Loam, Anthony Sand, Anthony Gravelly Sand, Anthony Fine Sand, Anthony Fine Sandy Loam, Anthony Silty Clay Loam, Gila Sand, Gila Fine Sandy Loam, Gila Loam, Gila Clay Loam, Gila Clay, and Brazito Fine Sand. In general the Gila series are close to the Rio Grande while the Anthony Series slope towards the edges of the narrow valley. The two types that occupy the largest areas are the Gila Fine Sandy Loam and the Gila Loam. The Tijeras Series is a new series, while the Anthony Series was first found in the Mesilla Valley survey, and the Gila Series from surveys in the Gila Basin. The point of first discovery of a series accounts for the name given to the particular series.

MINERALS

The entire geologic column from pre-Cambrian to the most recent sedimentary deposits is represented in New Mexico. The fuel bearing strata are Upper Cretaceous rocks while the metalliferous deposits are found almost exclusively in rocks dating from Cretaceous times. The coal deposits are considered more valuable than all other mineral wealth. This is based on the estimated number of tons of coal in the ground, which has been placed at 100 billion, covering an area of about ten million acres. The coal beds owned by companies in 1922 were estimated at about 425,000 acres and the total value of operations was placed at that time at $9,434,009, which was less than half the value of the operations of the metal companies which amounted to $19,600,000.

Although large quantities of other minerals have been mined in the past and may be mined in the future, coal and copper are the important products at the present time.

STATE TABLES

Value of Mineral Products, 1915 to 1920, by States

	Arizona	Colorado	New Mexico	Utah
1915	$ 91,522,049	$64,300,026	$25,549,161	$ 62,586,261
1916	192,622,991	77,642,778	37,123,501	99,734,209
1917	212,615,978	80,296,218	43,312,947	113,433,596
1918	203,992,915	79,003,928	40,631,024	105,785,474
1919	112,550,239	59,953,279	22,679,960	64,165,525
1920	116,355,415	76,038,226	27,883,565	76,536,657

Rank of States in Production of Copper, 1845 to 1920

State	Rank	Value	Percent. of Total Production of U. S.
Arizona	First	$8,345,760,277	28.19
Utah	Fourth	2,362,721,002	7.98
New Mexico	Seventh	698,126,486	2.36
Colorado	Tenth	284,012,588	.96

The total number of producing states is twenty-four.

CLIMATE

Changes in the atmospheric conditions of New Mexico have attracted considerable attention on account of the existence of evidence that there has been a decided change in the amount of rainfall in the last 5,000 years and that in post-glacial times there may have been a series of pulsatory changes. Pulsatory variations in rainfall may be traced in geologic times, the explanation of these being the deformation of the earth's crust, but the small cycles of more recent times are not so easily determined nor explained. The rainfall records covering a period of seventy years show a great variation from season to season and from year to year, but they do not show cycles of change in climate, probably due to the shortness of the period of records. Terraces along some of the rivers of the state are believed by some to have been formed as a result of alternate periods of heavy and light flow of water in the river beds. Rings of growth in trees also seem to show that there have been pulsatory periods of rainfall in comparatively recent times in arid America. The existence of ruins in many parts of New Mexico, where it would seem impossible to support the population that has subsisted in those places, appears to be evidence of a change of climate during the last 3,000 years. If it be admitted that there have been small cycles of changes in climate during the past 10,000 years, the cause remains to be explained. One explanation that has been offered relates to the shifting from north to south of the center of storm frequency which at present is in the vicinity of the Great Lakes. A more remote cause is also suggested, namely: that climatic changes are due to a variation in the amount of heat given off by the sun.

Since the state lies in the area of the sub-tropical calms, a section of high pressure, the movement of the air is downward and outward. It is, therefore, within the region where the westerly and northeast winds originate, due to the normal movement of the winds to the north and south towards the area of low pressure and their deflection caused by the rotation of the earth upon its axis. Thus the southern part of the zone of sub-tropical calms is affected by the northeast winds, and the northeastern part of the zone by the westerly winds. The effects of these winds are changed by the fact that the large land mass of North America heats and cools much more rapidly than the oceans. In the winter the center of North America (North Central Kansas) becomes much colder than the surrounding seas and therefore the center of high pressure (Denver, 30.2; California Coast, 30). Air currents in the winter move outward from the center to the east and south, causing very light winter rains and early frosts in New Mexico. This winter rainy season is created by comparatively dry westerly winds blowing from the Pacific, coming into New Mexico from the northeast and the northwest. The rainfall records kept in different parts of New

Mexico show a smaller rainfall in the winter months than in the summer months with the exception of a few stations in the northern part of the state. In the summer the interior of the continent changes to a condition of low pressure (Denver, 29.8; California Coast, 30) resulting in the destruction of the northeast trade winds that would otherwise blow across New Mexico. The place of these winds is taken by a monsoon wind from the south, southwest, and southeast, blowing from the Pacific, the Gulf of Mexico, and the Gulf of California, which moves toward the center of low pressure in the interior of the continent. As these winds move northward they are expanded by the heat from the land thus taking up rather than giving out moisture. When they reach the mountainous districts of New Mexico they are cooled. This results in giving New Mexico a summer period of sub-tropical monsoon rains which take the place of the dry northeast trade winds and in this manner prevent the region from being an absolute desert.

The characteristics of climate that determine its quality are temperature, humidity, and variability. The ideal climate should have an average winter temperature of 40° Fahrenheit, and an average summer temperature of 64° Fahrenheit, with a low humidity in hot weather; there should be frequent changes in weather; and a humidity averaging 60 per cent. The mean annual temperature of New Mexico for the past twenty-one years was 53.7° Fahrenheit. The following table gives the mean summer and winter temperatures of twenty-four places.

Name	Altitude Ft.	Latitude	Mean Temp. (Nov.-Apr.) F.	Name	Mean Temp. (May-Oct.) F.
Chama	7,851	36° 54′	31.66	Chama	56.48
Taos	6,983	36° 30′	35.28	Jemez Springs	60.13
Santa Fe	7,013	35° 41′	35.78	Taos	60.43
Bloomfield	5,500	36° 43′	36.80	Fort Union	60.70
Raton	6,660	36° 54′	37.66	Santa Fe	61.03
Espanola	5,590	36° 00′	37.68	Las Vegas	61.55
Estancia	6,140	34° 45′	37.81	Raton	61.68
Jemez Springs	6,100	35° 47′	37.86	Estancia	61.88
Fort Union	6,835	35° 54′	37.90	Fort Stanton	62.60
Fort Wingate	6,997	35° 29′	38.10	Magdalena	63.33
Las Vegas	6,384	35° 36′	38.46	Fort Wingate	63.73
Laguna	5,840	35° 02′	39.78	Espanola	64.20
Magdalena	6,557	34° 08′	40.38	Bloomfield	64.60
Clayton	5,178	36° 23′	41.51	Laguna	65.08
Ft. Stanton	6,231	33° 30′	41.55	Clayton	65.80
Albuquerque	4,950	35° 50′	42.28	Fort Bayard	66.65
Fort Bayard	6,152	32° 48′	44.01	Albuquerque	69.15
Socorro	4,600	34° 08′	44.08	Socorro	70.26

Elephant Butte	4,265	33° 10′	46.03	Elephant Butte	70.98
Tucumcari	4,194	35° 10′	46.15	Deming	71.11
Roswell	3,578	33° 24′	47.15	Tucumcari	71.13
Deming	4,333	32° 16′	47.78	Alamogordo	72.71
Agr. College	3,863	32° 45′	48.40	Roswell	73.50
Alamogordo	4,338	32° 52′	49.18	Agr. College	73.50

From the optimum temperature the variation at the places named for both summer and winter is not more than ten degrees. The places having cooler winters and summers lie north of the thirty-fifth parallel in high latitudes, while the places having warmer summers and winters than the ideal standard assumed, lie south of the thirty-fifth parallel in lower altitudes. These facts agree quite closely with Huntington's map of the distribution of human energy on the basis of climate. The zone of "very high" energy, as shown on Huntington's map, includes northeastern New Mexico, the zone of "high energy" covers the larger part of the state, while the zone of "medium energy" forms a band across the southern part of New Mexico.

A varying temperature without extremes of heat or cold is probably the most important factor in the relation of climate to human energy but variability and humidity are also to be considered. Variability depends upon the frequency of storms. The storm center for the United States is in the vicinity of the Great Lakes. New Mexico lies on the outer edge of this zone. As a result the southern part of the state has a less variable climate than the northern part. For the years 1899-1908 there were 219 storms north of the thirty-fifth parallel and eighty-nine south of that line. For the years 1878-1887 there were 112 storms north of the thirty-fifth parallel and twenty-two in the state to the south of this division. These figures seem to indicate that the climate of New Mexico is becoming more variable due to the increase of storms.

The third factor, humidity, relates to the amount of moisture in the air. It is expressed as the percentage of the total amount of moisture that the air can contain. The figures are incomplete but the following seem to be fairly accurate for mean annual humidity; State College, 44%; Albuquerque, 40%; Roswell, 47%; Santa Fe, 57%. These show that the humidity throughout the state is below the normal and also that it increases as the higher altitudes are reached. It is evident that New Mexico is below normal in this respect, although in hot weather a low humidity is very desirable.

PLANT AND ANIMAL LIFE

The physiographical conditions of New Mexico determine in a measure the distribution of plants and animals. Life zones have been mapped that stretch across the continent. Six of these are represented in the state, due to variation in altitude which is a striking characteristic of this mountainous area. The *Lower Sonoran* is the zone of mesquite occupying the valleys of the southern part of the state: in the southeastern part extending in a narrow strip as far north as Santa Rosa and across into the Canadian Valley; in the south central part covering the Tularosa Valley and the Rio Grande up to La Joya; in the southwestern section the plains area and the Gila Valley. The *Upper Sonoran* is the zone of nut pine and juniper. It includes the plains, the foothills, and extends up the canyons into the timbered areas. With the exception of the plains and valleys of the southern part of the state, and the high mountains generally, the lands of New Mexico lie in this zone. The *Transition* is the zone of yellow pine lying wholly in the mountains both east and west of the Rio Grande. The *Canadian Zone* is the area of spruce and fir. Its extent is limited to the high mountain slopes of the Mogollon, Sacramento, Jemez, San Juan, and Sangre de Cristo Mountains. The *Hudsonian Zone* is along the timber line and characterized by the dwarf spruce. Only a few square miles of the higher mountains of the Sangre de Cristo range fall within this section. The *Arctic-Alpine* is the zone above the timber line. Low shrubs and stunted trees are typical of this zone.

The *Lower Sonoran* is the most important of the zones for agricultural purposes, due to the long growing period and the high temperatures. The native species of plant and animal life and the foreign species that thrive in this area, form long lists of plants and animals of which only a few can be mentioned here. The woody plants of this region include the Creosote Bush, the Spanish Bayonet, the Screw Bean, the Desert Willow, and Valley Cottonwood. There are also a number of grasses: the Black Grama, the Tobosa, and the Mesquite Grass, on the mesas; while Bunch Grass and Salt Grass are found in the valleys. Cactuses in a variety of species are a part of the flora of this zone. The animals of the area include mammals, birds, and reptiles. Among the mammals there are a number of species of rats, mice, squirrels, rabbits, skunks, and bats. Then there is the Jaguar, the New Mexico Desert Fox, the Mearns Coyote, the Mexican Badger, and the New Mexican Weasel. The birds are quite numerous. The Rio Grande meadowlark, orioles, sparrows, wrens, thrashers, woodpeckers, owls, quails, and hawks breed in this district as well as a number of others. The Lizard group of reptiles is well represented with fifteen species, including the Gila Monster. Snakes are common, there being some eighteen varieties, including the Western Diamond Rattlesnake. Many varieties of fruit have been tested for this zone at the New Mexico Agricultural Experiment Station at State College, which is located within the area. A number of varieties of peaches, apricots, plums, apples, quinces, grapes, watermelons, canteloupes, onions, and sweet potatoes have been recommended as the safest for this zone. The early frosts have made almonds, figs, and citrus fruits, difficult, if not impossible, to raise.

The *Upper Sonoran,* the largest of the zones, ranks first in economic wealth in spite of the fact that the *Lower Sonoran* is a more important agricultural area. Lands useful for grazing only become more valuable as intensive agriculture increases in areas that are susceptible to such development. These grazing lands that include about three-fourths of the state, or 92,000 square miles, are therefore one of the great assets of New Mexico. The grasses that give this zone its value are the Grama Grass, the Galleta Grass, the Buffalo Grass, and Porcupine Grass. Sage Brush is found only in the northern part of the state. The woody plants include the Pinon, Alligator-bark Juniper, several cedars and oaks, Mountain Mahogany, Wild Grape, Hackberry, several of the Willows, Choke Cherry, Sycamore and Mulberry. Many of the *Lower Sonoran* animals are also found in the *Upper Sonoran* zone. Several species of deer, coyotes, antelopes, wolves, prairie dogs, mountain sheep, as well as rats, squirrels, mice, gophers, skunks, raccoons, badgers, are common to the area. The Sonora Pecarry, the Mexican Cougar, the Broadtailed Beaver, the Plateau Wildcat, and the Gray Fox, are also a part of the fauna of this region. Almost all of the birds that are found in this area seem to breed either in the *Transition* or the *Lower Sonoran.* Some of the breeding birds of the region are the Monte-

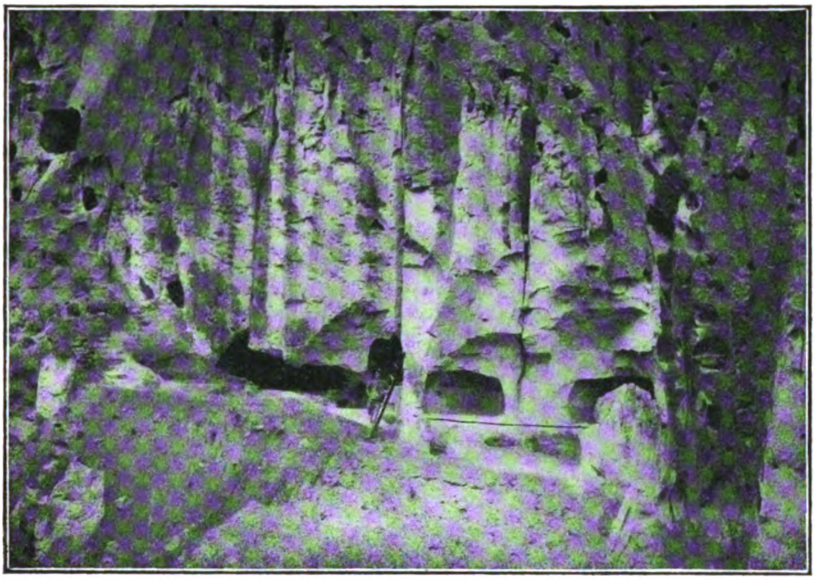


Photo by Museum Staff.

SNAKE VILLAGE—RITO DE LOS FRIJOLES

zuma Horned Lark, Woodehouse's Jay, Lark Bunting, Ruddy Duck, Cinnamon Teal, Western Marsh Wren, Mearns' Quail, Gray Titmouse, the Arkansas Kingbird, and a number of species of Sparrows. In addition to an assortment of reptiles, including numerous kinds of lizards; a few varieties of turtles, and a fair number of snakes, toads, frogs, and salamanders, of the amphibians are represented. The testing of plants for this zone has not been carried as far as in the *Lower Sonoran*. This area is the principal one for the small grains, corn and sugar beets, beans, peas, vegetable crops, as well as alfalfa. Fruits are hindered by early frosts, however, this zone in the Rocky Mountains is famous for its apples. A number of varieties of apples, quinces, pears, cherries, grapes, and various kinds of berries are successfully grown.

The *Transition* zone, covering about 10,000 square miles, is the section of the state important for timber. Very little agriculture is carried on, but there is good range for stock. Potatoes, grain, and vegetables are raised in some of the mountain valleys, but only in small quantities. The woody plants consist of the Yellow Pine, the Mountain Cottonwood, Rocky Mountain Cedar, several of the oaks and willows, Buffalo Berry, Wild Hop Vine, Virginia Creeper, Wild Gooseberry, Hawthorn, Currents and many other species. The grasses consist of the Colorado Bluestem and the wheat grasses, some of the rye grasses, and June Grass. In addition to species of the smaller animals mentioned in the *Upper Sonoran* there are a number of larger animals, namely: the Merriam Elk, the Rocky Mountain Lion, the Mexican Mountain Lion, the Mountain Bobcat, the Mountain Coyote, the Mexican Wolf, the Black Bear, the Grizzly Bear, the Mexican Grizzly Bear, the Otter, and the Mink. The birds of the zone are the Shoveler, Merriam's Turkey, several species of woodpeckers, sparrows, owls, hawks, hummingbirds, and warblers, as well as the Western Robin and the Chestnut-backed Bluebird. Reptiles disappear from this zone with the exception of one or two species that are also found in the *Upper Sonoran* region.

The *Canadian* zone is about one-fifth the size of the *Transition*. Its importance lies in the water-supply that it stores for the regions of lower altitude. Its lowest parts on the cold slopes are at an altitude of 8,500 feet. The trees found are the Bristolcone Pine, the Western White Pine, Douglas Spruce, the Balsam, several of the willows, and the Quaking Aspen. The grasses are the Arizona Fescue and several species of sedges and rushes. The mammals are fewer than in the lower zones. The number of species of the smaller animals represented shows a marked decrease. There are elk, deer, the Canadian Lynx, the Mountain Red Fox, Marten, and Black Bear. Some of the birds are the Rocky Mountain Jay, Cassin's Purple Finch, the Mexican Crossbill, Audubon's Hermit Thrush, the Northern Violet-green Swallow, and the White-crowned Sparrow.

The *Hudsonian* is a very narrow zone along the timber line on the upper slopes of the high mountains. In area it probably does not cover more than 300 square miles. The trees and shrubs include the Siberian Juniper, Engelmann's Fir, Parry's Fir, several species of currants and sedges. Wheat Grass, Oat Grass, and Alpine Timothy are also found. The mammals are few, being Mountain Sheep, Rocky Mountain Woodchuck, the Gray Rock Cony, and the Dusky Rock Cony. Only a few birds breed in this zone. They are the Rocky Mountain Pine Grosbeak, Clark's Nutcracker, the Rocky Mountain Jay, the Gray-headed Junco, and the Golden-crowned Kinglet.

The *Arctic-Alpine* is the smallest of the life zones represented in New Mexico. The area is above the timber line in the neighborhood of 12,500 feet. It contains about 100 square miles. A number of plants adapt themselves to the long winters and the continuous frosts. Among the plants are the Colorado Poppy, several species of saxifrages, sedges, and rushes, the Dwarfed Closed Gentian, Alpine Larkspur, Alpine Yarrow, Mountain Sorrel, Whitlow Cress, Goldenrod, and Alpine Sagebrush. Few mammals even enter the region. Those that go into the section in the summer are the Mountain Sheep, the Long-tailed Meadow Mouse, the Pocket Gopher, the Gray Rock Cony, the Colorado Chipmunk, the Red Fox, and the Arizona Weasel. There are only three species of birds that breed in the zone, namely: the White-tailed Ptarmigan, the Titlark, and the Brown-capped Rosy Finch.

The dependence of plant and animal life upon the physiography of the country is self-evident. We rename the life zones in order to emphasize their place in the determination of the activities of man in New Mexico. The *Lower Sonoran* may be called the agricultural zone; the *Upper Sonoran*, the grazing zone; the *Transition*, the timber zone; and the *Canadian*, the *Hudsonian*, and the *Arctic-Alpine*, the water-supply zones. The first group of three regions are thus seen to effect the occupations of man directly, while the second group are just as significant but have an indirect relation to man's economic life.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

THE LAND OF NEW MEXICO

Bailey, Vernon. "Life Zones and Crop Zones of New Mexico." Biological Survey. *North America Fauna.* No. 35. 1913.
Darton, N. H. "Geological Structure of Parts of New Mexico." U. S. G. S. *Bulletin* 726. 1922.
Darton, N. H., and others. "Guide of the Western United States." Part C. "The Santa Fe Route." U. S. G. S. *Bulletin* 613.
Darton, N. H. "A Reconnaissance of Parts of Northwestern New Mexico * * *" U. S. G. S. *Bulletin* 435. (Serial 5755.)

Ellis, R. W. "The Oil Situation in New Mexico." State University of New Mexico. *Bulletin* 101. 1920.

Ellis, R. W. "Geology of the Sandia Mountains." State University of New Mexico. *Bulletin* 108. 1922.

Finlay, J. R. *Report of Appraisal of Mining Properties of New Mexico.* n. p., 1922.

Hare, R. F., and S. R. Mitchell. "Composition of Some New Mexico Waters." N. M. A. E. S. *Bulletin* 83. 1912.

Henry, A. J. "Climatology of the United States." Weather Bureau. *Bulletin* Q. 1906.

Herrick, C. L. "The Geology of the White Sands of New Mexico." University of New Mexico. *Bulletin.* II., pt. 1, 1900.

Herrick, C. L. "Report of a Geological Reconnaissance in Western Socorro and Valencia Counties, New Mexico." University of New Mexico. *Bulletin.* II., pt. 1. 1900.

Herrick, C. L., and D. W. Johnson. "The Geology of the Albuquerque Sheet." University of New Mexico. *Bulletin.* II., pt. 1.

Huntington, Ellsworth. *The Climatic Factor as Illustrated in Arid America.* Wash., D. C. 1914.

Jones, F. A., *New Mexico Mines and Minerals.* Santa Fe, N. M. 1904.

Jones, F. A. *Epitome of Economic Geology of New Mexico.* Albuquerque, N. M., 1908.

Kelly, Clyde. "A Preliminary Study of the Waters of the Jemez Plateau, New Mexico." University of New Mexico. *Bulletin* 71. 1913.

Lee, W. T. "Raton-Brilliant-Koehler Folio, New Mexico-Colorado, No. 214." U. S. G. S. *Geologic Atlas of the United States.* 1922.

Lee, W. T., and G. H. Girty. "The Manzano Group of the Rio Grande Valley." U. S. G. S. *Bulletin* 389.

Linney, C. E., and Fabian Garcia. "Climate in relation to Crop Adaptation in New Mexico." N. M. A. E. S. *Bulletin* 113.

MacDougal, D. T. "Botanical Features of North American Deserts." Carnegie Institution. *Publication* 99.

Marbut, C. F., and others. "Soils of the United States." Bureau of Soils. *Bulletin* 96. 1913.

Meinzer, O. E. "Preliminary Report on the Ground Waters of the Estancia Valley, New Mexico." U. S. G. S. *Water-Supply Paper* 260. (Serial 6006, Doc. 1029.)

Nelson, J. W., and others. "Soil Survey of the Middle Rio Grande Valley Area, New Mexico." Bureau of Soils. *Bulletin.* 1914.

Paige, Sidney. "Copper Deposits of the Tyrone District." U. S. G. S. *Professional Paper* 122. 1922.

Reagan, A. B. "Geology of the Jemez-Albuquerque Region." *American Geologist.* XXXI (1903), 68-110.

Schwennesen, A. T., and R. F. Hare. "Ground Water in the Animas, Playas, Hachita, and San Luis Basins, New Mexico * * *" U. S. G. S. *Water-Supply Paper* 422.

Silliman, B. "The Mineral Regions of Southern New Mexico." The American Institute of Mining Engineers. *Transactions.* X, 422-444. Easton, Pa., 1882.

Vernon, J. J. "Dry Farming in New Mexico." N. M. A. E. S. *Bulletin* 61. 1907.

Wells, E. H. "Manganese in New Mexico." New Mexico State School of Mines. *Bulletin* 2. 1918.

Wooton, E. O. "Cacti in New Mexico." N. M. A. E. S. *Bulletin* 78. 1911.

Wooton, E. O. "The Range Problem in New Mexico." N. M. A. E. S. *Bulletin* 66. 1908.

Wooton, E. O., and P. C. Standley. "The Grasses and Grass-like Plants of New Mexico." N. M. A. E. S. *Bulletin* 81. 1912.

Wooton, E. O. "Trees and Shrubs of New Mexico." N. M. A. E. S. *Bulletin* 87. 1913.

Wooton, E. O., and P. C. Standley. "Flora of New Mexico." United States National Museum. *Contributions from the United States National Herbarium.* 1915.

CHAPTER II.

THE CULTURE OF THE NEW MEXICO INDIANS

THE INDIANS OF NEW MEXICO

The study of the manner of living of people, whether primitive or highly developed, whether in the distant past or in the recent past, whether in the New World or in the Old World, has been given the name anthropology. The acquisition, classification, and correction of this vast body of knowledge as it exists today is a work that in a large measure has been accomplished during the past fifty years. Anthropology has demonstrated that it can throw light upon all of the other Social Sciences and in so doing it has in a comparatively short time gained a position of high rank among the subjects that thoughtful men believe to be essential to the welfare of mankind.

From the time that Europeans found the Americas inhabited until the present, the questions have been asked, Where did the American Indians come from and how did they develop their different manners of living? The reply to the first of these queries is that they probably came from Asia by way of land bridges between Kamchatka and Alaska, and to the second that isolation of groups has resulted in creating a variety of customs which are largely the effect of different environment and innate tendency to change.

DISTRIBUTION OF INDIAN CULTURE

North America has been divided into a number of Indian culture areas which are based upon the varying culture trait complexes that characterize the life of the inhabitants of the regions. These regions are the following: the Arctic, the McKenzie, the North Pacific Coast, the Columbia River Basin, California, the Plains, the Northeast, the Southeast, the Antilles, Mexico and Central America, and the Southwest. New Mexico lies within the Southwestern culture area which has two types of Indian culture, namely: that of the nomadic tribes, and that of the settled Indians. Pueblo culture of the Southwest is found distributed over five large basins which are the following: the Rio Grande, the San Juan, the Little Colorado, the Gila, and the Inland Basin of Chihuahua. Not only are there variations in culture from one of these districts to another, but thirty-eight enthnic sub-divisions have been marked off within the drainage areas. In New Mexico, the Rio Grande Valley contains fourteen of these minor divisions; the San Juan Valley, one; the Little Colorado Valley, one; and the Gila Valley, two. Thus, eighteen of the ethnic sub-divisions of Pueblo culture lie within the present state of New Mexico. Some of these areas are occupied by Pueblo Indians today while others contain only ruins, the inhabitants having entirely disappeared. The nomadic tribes came into New Mexico after the Pueblo Indians and ranged over the plains rather than settling in the valleys as the village people had done. The Navaho appropriated the northwestern part of the state, the Apache the eastern and southwestern parts, while the Comanche and the Ute annexed to their ranges small areas in the northern part of New Mexico.

CHRONOLOGY OF PUEBLO CULTURE

Time as well as place is important in the discovery of the full meaning of facts concerning a people. The absence of written records of prehistoric Pueblo culture has forced the archaeologist to adopt a relative time order in the dating of ruins. Two systems of dating based on periods of pottery discovered in various localities have been used: the one, the stratigraphic method; the other, the surface method. In the investigation of ruins seven periods of Pueblo development have been designated on the basis of the pottery index. The first and oldest is that of the basket maker with pottery generally absent; the second, is the period of crude pottery only; the third, is characterized by early two-color painted ware; the fourth, by late two-color painted ware; the fifth, by two-color glazed ware; the sixth, by three-color painted and glazed ware; and the seventh, two-color glazed ware. Where refuse heaps are found about the Pueblos it is possible to find remains of a number of these periods of development. If in the cross section of the refuse of a Pueblo the early periods are not represented then it seems a justifiable conclusion to state that the region was not occupied during the early periods of Pueblo culture, while if no remains of the later periods are found then it seems to follow that the locality was abandoned prior to the later epochs of Pueblo history. In the absence of refuse heaps surface potsherd collections may furnish the key to the age of ruins. This method has been used in an effort to determine the age of the prehistoric pueblos of the Zuñi district. If at a given location the number of pieces of pottery representing the older types is large and there are few pieces of the more recent types, one is inclined to accept the inference that the site was occupied during the early centuries of Pueblo history and abandoned during the later period, while if the early types of pottery are not common and the later types are found in large quantities one is led to believe that the location was not occupied during the early periods but was an important center during the more recent periods of the development of Pueblo culture.

THE COSMOGONY OF THE PUEBLO INDIANS

The conception of the origin of the world held by the Pueblo Indians explains everything that occurs in their lives and everything that has a bearing on their existence. The only exception is the earth itself which is not accounted for, but their beliefs explain the sky, the planets, animals, plants, men and their relations to each other; all of which is quite reasonable to the Indian mind. There are the cloud people, the sun father, the sky father, the earth mother, the moon mother, the people of the north, south, east, west, zenith and nadir. Animals and plants are personified and natural objects such as stones and pillars of stone, which the imagination may picture to resemble animals or beings, are conceived of as representing supernatural forces. Every action of the individual may be aided by supplications directed to the spirits. Symbolism and ceremonialism are the concrete expression of the thought of the Indian and the means by which he transmits his message to those controlling mysterious forces. Tribal society has commonly explained the inexplicable, and that which is not comprehended by him, though understood by people of higher development, by beliefs which are called animism, or nature worship. These beliefs are the basis for the ritualistic, social, and governmental organization and are thought of as having been created in the beginning and as having continued unchanged, which is peculiar since developed people are well aware that all ideas handed down by tradition are subject to constant alteration.

Some of the Zuñi, Sia, and Navaho beliefs concerning the creation of all the world, except the earth itself, are given here as illustrative of Pueblo conceptions. According to the Zuñi ideas there existed before the beginning of the world, the Maker of All who created the Sun Father and then water in which the seed of the two worlds produced the Earth Mother and the Sky Father. They then created man and creatures in the lap of the Earth Mother. In order to supply food for these beings, the Sky Father placed seven grains of corn in the sacred bowl and the seven grains increased and supplied food for men and animals. The beings came into existence not on this earth but far in the interior where it was damp and dark. A master mind begged the Sun Father that man might be delivered from his unhappy situation and in reply the Twin Gods, the deliverers of men, were created from the sea by the Sun Father. The Twin Gods, the Brothers of Light, lifted the Sky Father to the Zenith and cut their way into the interior of the earth. The grasses in the fourth cave down were wound into a ladder and men and animals climbed into the third cave which was better than the fourth but the increase of man soon resulted in crowding and the place was only less damp and dark than the earlier cave. The people ascended into the second cave and this for similar

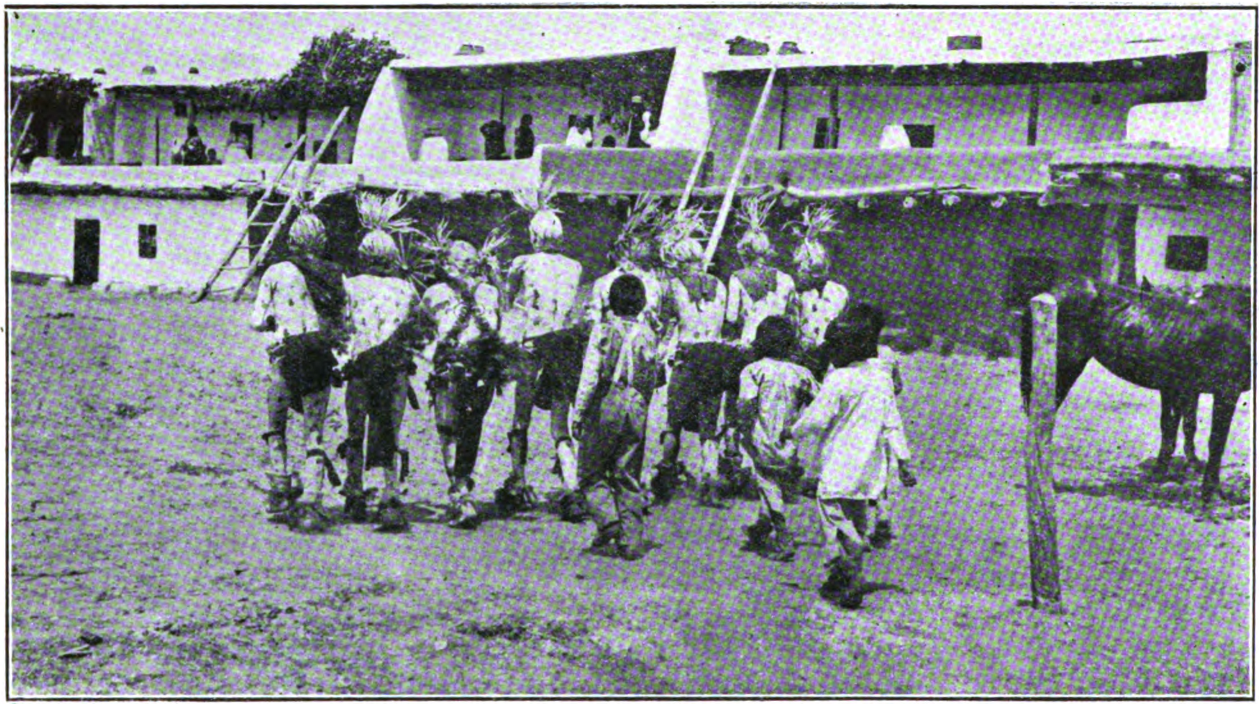


Photo by Museum Staff.

KOSHARE AT CORN DANCE, SANTO DOMINGO

reasons was soon undesirable. Finally the Twin Gods brought the people into the world cave. At the time of man's delivery from the underworld he resembled other creatures in many respects. He became accustomed to the light, learned to walk on his hind feet and adopted the use of clothing for protection, only gradually.

Priestly powers were brought from the underworld and the priesthoods were established among men. Through them the people gained the knowledge necessary for their lives. The priests received their wisdom from the gods. The chief priest created four eggs, two red and two blue, which were the seeds of living things and the people were allowed to take their choice between the red and blue. Those who chose the red became the Summer people, the Macaw people, and those who chose the blue became the Winter people. The Twin Gods determined that the Summer people should be the children of the Earth Mother and should be related to things of the south and of summer, while the Winter people should be the children of the Sky Father and associated with the things of the north and of winter. Some of the Summer people loved the Sun and they became the Sun people, others the water and they became the Toad people, and in this manner all of the clans of the Summer and Winter people were created. The Macaw clan of the Midmost became the clan line of the priest fathers and they were given the care of the sacred things. Those who had charge of sacred things banded together in religious brotherhoods of which there were seventeen, namely; the priesthood of the priest people, the priesthood of the hunt, the priesthood of the defenders of the pathway for the people, the priesthood of magic and knowledge, two priesthoods for each of the six regions, and one for the Midmost.

The earth was still too wet and damp, subject to shakes and man was attacked by beasts. The people asked for aid of the Twin Gods who raised the mountains, turned many of the monsters into stone, and led the people toward the Sun in the search for the middle of the world. In the fourth place that they stopped the people met strangers who were living in houses. (Cushing believed that these people who were met were descendants of the cliff people of the San Juan Valley while the migrating group were moving eastward from the vicinity of the Pacific Coast and that the two people joined forming the Zuñi tribe.) The migrating people proclaimed themselves the people of the seed with power to make things grow and the village people caused fruit to grow from the grasses created by the migrating people who said to the village people, "You are our 'elder brothers,'" and the two groups then agreed to join. Following this the search for the middle of the world was resumed but the people became restless with the many changes and on this account it was decided to send messengers to search for the Middle. Two sons of the priest were sent and did not return, whereupon the youngest son and his sister were dispatched to make the search. The daughter of the priest gave birth to twelve unnatural children who became the oracles and sages of the ancients. Except for the manner of the birth of these wise men; gods, men and the souls of the dead would not have suffered.

By this time the clans had become so numerous that they separated going in different directions in search of the Middle. On their journey a group came to a river which it was necessary to ford. In the course of the passage the children were turned into animals according to their totems. The transformed children clawed their mothers who allowed them to fall into the water and they sank into the lake of the hollow mountain where those who had died lived in a great Pueblo. At the time of the crossing some of the people fled southward and became the "lost others" while some of the women, encouraged by the Twin Gods, carried their children to the farther bank where they were changed from the animal of their totem to human beings.

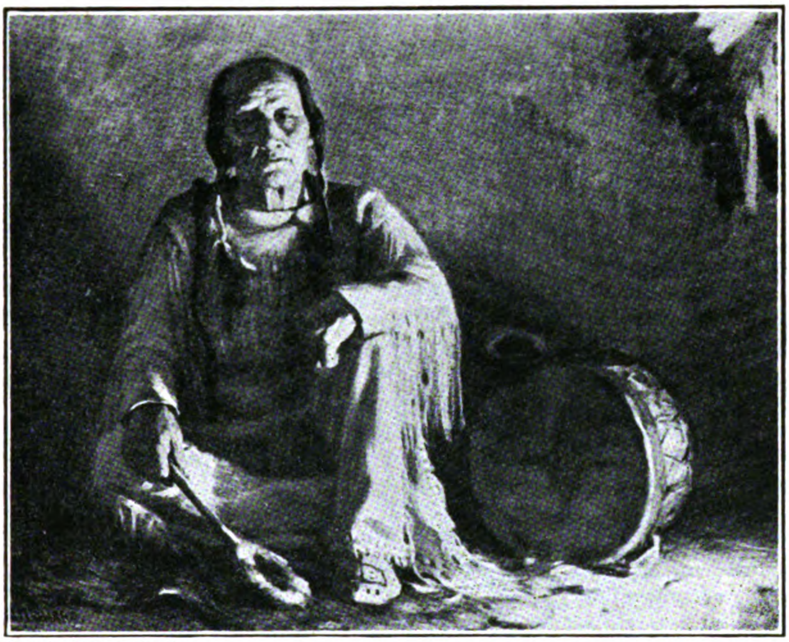


Photo by Museum Staff.

THE DRUMMER—PAINTING BY J. H. SHARP

One of the priests who had lost his way was led by the Duck god to the council chamber of the dead, known as the Kokko, in the lake in the hollow mountain, where the children who had been drowned performed the "dance of the good." The priest was instructed by the spirits in the customs which he was ordered to teach to the people. He was then carried back to the village accompanied by the Duck god who told the people of the life after death in the hollow mountain.

According to the Sia conception there was in the beginning one being in the lower world, the Spider Woman, who placed on the ground two small parcels from each of which came forth a woman who was followed by people, animals, plants and inanimate things. The two women became the mothers of all: the one of all Indians; the other of non-Indian people. The Spider Woman, after dividing the people into clans, created the Cloud, the Lightning, the Thunder and the Rainbow people, each of which were divided into six parts, one part being sent to the north, one to the west, one to the south, one to the east, one to the zenith and one to the nadir, in order that they might work for the people of the earth. These people lived in the middle plain of the world and the Sia were commanded to smoke in order that the clouds should be formed which would screen the middle plain people from the sight of the inhabitants of the earth.

The mothers went into the kiva and created the Sun from white shell, turquoise, red stone, and abalone shell and carried it to the east where they ascended a high mountain behind which they dropped the sun. When the people saw the world by the light of the sun they found that it was very beautiful. The mothers then created the moon from a black stone, varieties of yellow stones, turquoise, and red stone. The moon travelled so slowly and often gave so little light that the mothers decided to create the Star people from a white crystal.

Then came a contest of powers between the mother of the Indians and the mother of all of the other people in which the Indian mother, with the aid of the Spider Woman, was in every trial the victor. In the last contest the mother of the Indians created the Katsuna, beings having human bodies and heads of monsters, who are personated by the Sia Indians, masks being worn for the purpose. Then the Spider Woman instructed the mother of the Indians to create two messengers: the one to carry messages between the Katsuna and the sun, the other to carry messages between the Katsuna and the moon. The first of these messengers was called Koshairi, the dispatch bearer and the companion of the sun; and the second, the Querranna, the messenger and companion of the moon. This was followed by a fight between the Indian people and all other people and between the two mothers, in which the Indians won a victory. After the contest the Spider Woman instructed the members of the societies in the songs for the bringing of rain.

For eight epochs after the fight the Indians were prosperous but in the ninth period the earth was filled with water. The people escaped from the flood by means of a large hollow reed furnished by the Spider Woman. One of the assistants to the mother of the Indians, who was leading the people from the underworld, carried the stars in a sack but becoming curious opened the sack and allowed almost all of them to escape. The few that were left were placed in the heavens in groups forming the Great Bear, Orion, Pleiades and other constellations. The Cloud, Lightning, Thunder and Rainbow people also migrated from the underworld and made their homes in springs as they did below. Only a part of the people of the Middle Plain came out of the underworld to work for the people of the earth. The Cloud people carry water from the springs at the base of the mountains, then pass through the trunk of a tree to the Middle Plain, and take the water to the region which they desire to aid. In order to compensate the Cloud people and gain their good will, the people of Sia place offerings at shrines. The Lightning people shoot arrows for the purpose of making it rain harder and the Rainbow people make the Middle Plain

Photo by courtesy U. S. Forest Service.

INDIAN PICTOGRAPHS ON ROCK, SANTA FE NATIONAL FOREST more beautiful for the people of the earth. The Thunder people have wings of knives that make a great noise.

After the people of Sia ascended to the upper world, the hole through which they came called Shípapo was closed in order to prevent the water from flooding the earth. The people in the beginning lived in camps but later built villages. Their food was the seed of grasses until the Mother of the Indians planted bits of her heart from which corn grew. Later the people desired to pass to the center of the world but the earth was too wet. After calling on the bear, the badger, the shrew and the wolf for assistance in hardening the ground, the Mother of the Indians went to the underworld to seek advice and aid from the Spider Woman who, through the individuals of the Spider Society, made the earth hard in order that the people might pass over it. The Mother of the Indians then selected as chief a man of the Corn Clan who was instructed to lead the people to the center of the earth. He was given a crooked staff and the power of communicating with the Mother of the Indians. Before leaving Sia the Mother placed a Sia woman in each of the six regions to intercede with the Cloud people for the tribe. After advancing some distance along the straight road toward the center of the earth, the Sia built a pueblo of beautiful white stone. The population increased very rapidly, so rapidly that the chief killed all of the children to prevent over populating the land. Then the men and women quarreled which ended in a decision to live apart, but after a period of time the women begged the men to return. The unnatural children born during this separation became giants who ate the people of Sia, but in spite of these adverse conditions the numbers increased and many pueblos were built.

The Sun Father determined to relieve the people from the sufferings caused by the ravages of the monsters. He created as his agents the Twin Gods, born of the virgin yellow woman of the north. They visited their father, the sun, who gave them a bow, arrows and three rabbit sticks and with these they killed the enemies of Sia. The Twin Gods visited the lake and killed the wolf; then they went to the canyon where they killed the cougar and procured arrow wood; later they traveled to the lake in the west where they killed the bear and secured eagle feathers. Following this they went to the south and killed the bad woman. While in her house they fell into the world below and there in a kiva stole bows and arrows which belonged to the Lightning people. A whirlwind then carried them back to earth where they produced rain by shooting the arrows of the Lightning people. The Twin Gods then journeyed to the west in which region they killed the bad antelope and decreed that his flesh should furnish food for their people forever. In this manner all of the enemies of Sia were killed. Following this the Twin Gods disguised themselves as honey and visited the village of the Katsuna where only one family welcomed them.

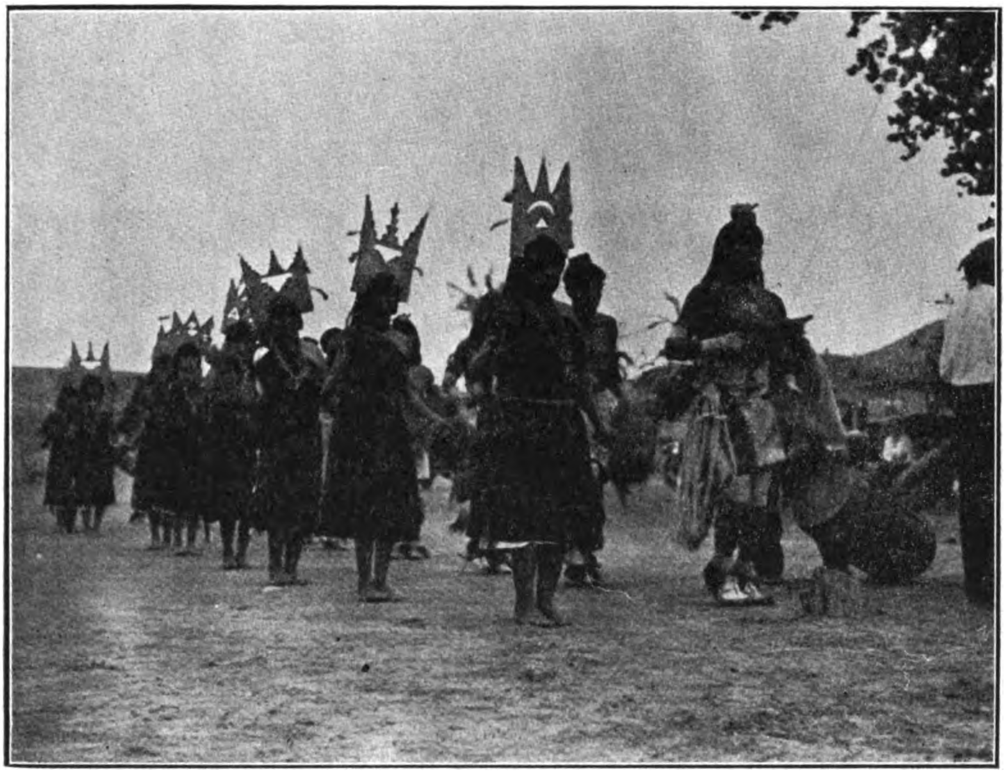


Photo by Museum Staff.

CORN DANCE AT SAN ILDEFONSO

TAOS PUEBLOS

The Twins became angry and turned all of the villagers to stone except the family that had been friendly. The Twin Gods then stepped upon the rainbow and went to visit their father, the sun, who commanded them not to return to the earth but to make their home on the top of the Sandia Mountains.

After a long period of time had elapsed the chief of the Sia desired to continue the search for the center of the earth. At first this was made impossible by the rising of the waters as they had risen in the world below. Then a maiden and youth were sacrificed to the spirit of the waters by casting them over the edge of the mesa and immediately the waters began to recede. As the people moved in search of the center of the earth, the chief found it necessary to call upon the priests of the Spider Clan to harden the earth. During this last period of migration many villages were built, the last of which was similar to the beautiful white village of the north. (According to Sia tradition this village was located two and one-half miles north of the present Pueblo.)

The similarity of the Navaho beliefs to those of the Pueblos is shown by the following. The first three worlds in which these Indians lived moved very rapidly making the people dizzy. When they ascended into the fourth world there was no light. In the Ute Mountain there lived the Turqouise Woman and the White Shell Woman. The Turquoise Woman marked eyes and a mouth on a piece of turquoise with a crystal dipped in pollen and then tried to create light. After a number of failures she held the crystal over the turquoise face which lighted into a blaze but it was too close and only after a number of trials was the sun lifted high enough to relieve the people from the heat. Then the twelve "Holders up of the Heavens" for each of the four directions were created and they still perform that duty.

The world was destroyed five times: the first time by a whirlwind; the second by hail; the third by smallpox; the fourth by coughing, and the fifth by the Twin Gods who were the children of the Sun Father. On the fourth day after their birth they had grown to manhood. When they arrived at the house of the sun he denied to his wife that they were his offspring but after several unsuccessful attempts to kill them he admitted that they were. The Sun Father then gave them invulnerable clothing, a stone knife, and lightning with which to kill all of the enemies of the Navaho. The Twin Gods then traveled far and wide killing the foes of their people until all of them had been put out of the way.

The Turquoise Woman placed an ear of white corn on the mountain which gave birth to the messenger of the sun and the White Shell Woman, the wife of the sun, placed an ear of yellow corn on the mountain which gave birth to the companion of the messenger of the sun. The messenger and his companion stand together on the mountain and call upon the clouds to assist the people. It is for this reason that supplications for rain are addressed to Hasjelti, the messenger of the sun, and Hostjoghon, his companion.

LANGUAGE OF THE NEW MEXICAN INDIANS

There are four distinct linguistic stocks existing today among the Indians of New Mexico, namely: Tanoan, Keresan, Zuñian, and Athapascan. The Zuñian language is spoken only at Zuñi. The Athapascan linguistic stock includes the Navaho Apache, the Mescalero Apache, and the Jicarilla Apache, in New Mexico. The Keresan linguistic stock embraces the Pueblos of Cochiti, Santo Domingo, San Felipe, Santa Ana, Sia, Laguna, and Acoma. The speech of these pueblos differs only slightly. For this reason they are classed as dialects of the Keresan language. The Tanoan linguistic stock is divided into three languages which are the Tiwa, Towa and Tewa. Each of these are subdivided into dialects. The Tewa group of Pueblos occupies a central position in the vicinity of Santa Fe and divides the Tiwa into a northern and southern group and the Towa into an eastern and a western section. The Tewa dialects are those of San Juan, Santa Clara, San Ildefonso, Tesuque, and Nambé. Probably the Tano group of extinct Pueblos of the Galisteo Basin, as well as the former inhabitants of the Chama and the Santa Clara Valley and the other valleys as far south as the Rito de los Frijoles on both sides of the Rio Grande, spoke the Tewa language. The Towa tongue was spoken at the now extinct Pecos Pueblo and is the speech of the Jemez Pueblo, these forming the two dialects of the Towa language. The Tiwa language was formerly spoken by three groups of Pueblos. One of these groups, the Piro Tiwa, has become practically extinct within historic times. It occupied the Rio Grande between Los Lunas and San Marcial. Sandia, Isleta and the extinct Pueblos of Chililí, Tajique, and Quaray form the second group of Tiwa speaking villages. The third group consists of the northern Pueblos of Taos and Picuris.

One of the striking peculiarities of the Tewa language is the use of a "tone" system similar to that of the Chinese. The Chinese dialect known as Mandarin has four tones while the Cantonese has eight. In the case of the Tewa language there are three tones, the same word having another meaning in the different tones. For example: the Tewa word *p'o* with a rising inflection signifies "moon," with a level inflection it means "trail," and with a falling inflection, "water."

Something of the variety of speech existing among the Indians of New Mexico may be illustrated by giving the different names applied to the Keresan Pueblo of Santo Domingo. (The word in parenthesis is the name of the language of the particular Pueblo.) In the Tewa language the Pueblo of Santo Domingo is called *Tewige;* Taos and Picuris Pueblos (Tiwa) call it *Tuwita;* Isleta Pueblo (Tiwa), *Tuawihol;* Sandia Pueblo

(Tiwa), *Tewiai;* Jemez and Pecos Pueblos (Towa), *Tawigi;* Cochiti Pueblo (Keresan), *Tyewa;* Santo Domingo Pueblo (Keresan), *Kyewa;* Sia Pueblo (Keresan), *Tiwi;* San Felipe Pueblo (Keresan), *Kiwa;* Laguna Pueblo (Keresan), *Dyiwi;* Acoma Pueblo (Keresan), *Tiwi;* Zuñi Pueblo (Zuñian), *Wehlthluwalla;* and the Navaho (Athapascan) speak of the Santo Domingo Pueblo as *Kinklekaini.*

The following table presents a few words; from three of the dialects of the Tiwa language, from one of the dialects of the Towa language, and from one of the dialects of the Tewa language. The Tiwa, Towa, and Tewa are variations of a common linguistic stock, the Tanoan. It has has been observed in the case of dialects as closely related as the Tiwa dialects of the Taos and Picuris Pueblos that the Indians have great difficulty in making themselves understood.

English	Piro Tiwa	Isleta Tiwa	Taos Tiwa	Jemez Towa	San Ildefonso Tewa
Woman in prime	sune	liudade	liuena	tyo	kwi
Infant	yuwane	uude	uuna	kinw	epi
My father	elemtatae	innkai	anntamena	ninutone	nanbitada
My mother	etemkiae	innkey	annkana	ninuzee	nanbiyaya
People	atsihem	taide	tainema	tsaac	towa
Mouth	sanae	lamu	lamunan	tyekwa	so
Hand	manem	man	maneneman	mante	mann
Heart	pene	pie	piaena	pel	pinn
Blood	uhem	una	onneman	un	un
Village	taihoneae	natuey	kwaagan	towa	onywi
Chief	taikhemtsae	tabuide	taboena	fwi	tuyo
Friend	piyee	puide	puiena	kiaba	kema
Home	hronnae	nathu	thuna	tohaa	tehwa
Bow	huile	hwide	hwileena	oh	ah
Arrow	sawem	loa	loaneman	tyoc	su
Knife	hatsae	tciehoa	kwaena	hel	kuwi
Shoes	kiupie	kuap	koapana	innic	onnto
Tobacco	saye	le	laena	wapala	sa
Sky	yapolyawe	papunyi	papoena	hota	mahkowa
Sun	pue	thudide	thulena	pe	thann
Moon	ae	paide	paena	pa	pa
I	naoe	nan	nan	nin	nan
Nine	huaweh	huna	hwina	hunl	hwannu
To speak	hatzesayoi	tun	tun	tse	tun
To kill	kiehunao	hu	hu	ho	he
To sing	hayatahoi	tca	yata	dza	khawan
To see	hinmooi	mun	mun	mun	muu
To love	tapetao		maxan	wa	ndaa
To dance	hiwe-ee		ta	tcun	ya

The Government of a Pueblo

Tribal government and tribal beliefs concerning man's relation to the universe are always closely connected. The alliance of altar and throne may be traced from the earliest forms of society down to the present. The separation of church and state is a recent historical phenomenon that is by no means common to all of the people of the earth at this time. The Pueblos of New Mexico illustrate the close relation among tribal people between the governing power in matters of this world and in matters that involve supernatural power. Details in organization of government vary among the Pueblos but the general plan is the same. In Zuñi, for instance, the high priest's office is an hereditary one while at Sia it is a life appointment. In both, however, those who are the agents of the supernatural beings control the offices of state.

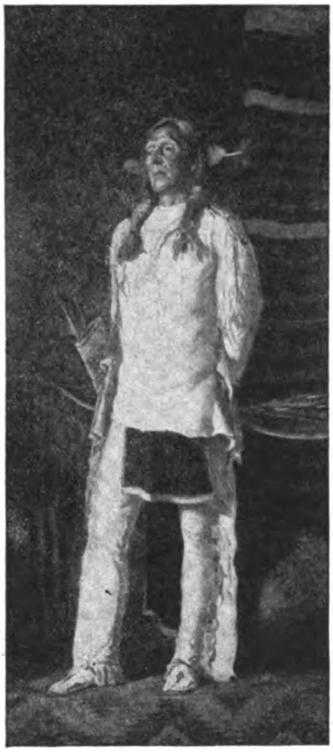


Photo by State Museum.

DEER BEAD—PAINTING BY JULIUS ROLSHOVEN

The organization of the Pueblo of Sia is here used as an example of Pueblo government. At the beginning of the European occupation the Pueblo was essentially a miniature state. Sia answered the requirements of a state since it consisted of territory, people, and a government and since it was a sovereign body, that is, absolutely independent. The chief officer of the government of this state is the high priest who is, ex-officio, chief legislature and administrator. He holds his office for life but as a result of custom he is chosen alternately from the Corn, Coyote, and Cane clans. Provision is made for the initiation by the chief officers. The high priest appoints an assistant who succeeds to the office upon the death of the holder. This method of choosing is common to the chief offices which are, in addition to that of the high priest, the war priest, and the heads of the eight societies who have specified supernatural powers in healing and bringing rain.

The minor offices are filled by appointments made by the high priest and the war priest with the aid of their assistants. These offices consist of that of the war chief, the governor, the magistrate, and an assistant for each. After the selections have been made, the heads of the eight societies are asked to concur which they always do. Then the tribe is assembled and the announcement is made of the officers. These appointments are made for a one-year term, but there is no rule concerning re-appointment. It is the war chief's duty to patrol the town during the meetings of the societies and to surround the town with mounted guards during the Katsuna Dance. As at Zuñi, the Sia have a strict rule that no person of Mexican descent may look upon the representation of the anthropomorphic beings. It is also the war chief's task to lead the military expeditions and the tribal hunts under the direction of the war priest. The governor has charge of all civil matters. Before sunset he announces in the plaza the duties of the people for the following day. The magistrate is the least important of the officials. Minor civil matters are settled by him and his assistant.

THE SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATION OF THE PUEBLO INDIANS

In theory the Pueblo is a unit of social and religious life, the members being related in varying degrees. In practice kinship is broken down to some extent by the adoption into the Pueblo group of members from other Pueblos and tribes, and by the custom of not recognizing a blood relationship back of the third degree.

Many have supposed that the clan in tribes thus divided formed the dominant feature of the social and religious organization. This conception is built up on the theory that the clan existed as a unit before the tribe and that the latter group was formed by the joining of a number of the clans. These according to this point of view consisted of a body of kinsmen, occupying a common locality, belonging to the same priesthoods, healing societies and other organizations within the tribe. It is clear that if this were true the family would be of secondary importance and the tribe would be split into clans having little or no connection with each other. Kroeber has shown in the case of Zuñi that the social and religious system rests on the basis of the family, that the clan is hardly more than a ceremonial institution and that the blood tie is not a dominant feature of clan organization. Members of a given clan as such feel no closer tie than toward a member of another clan. The clans do not occupy a particular part of the Pueblo. The members belong to different priesthoods, although the chief office in some cases must be held by an individual of a specified clan. Membership in the religious and healing societies as well as in the Kiva societies is determined by blood kinship rather than by clan affiliation. Thus the tribe is knit together by the various organizations rather than divided into groups having little in common as would be the case if the clan determined all of the relations of the individuals of the tribe to each other.

The mother's position in Pueblo society is made more important than it otherwise would be by the custom which makes her the possessor of the home. This seems to be the chief matriarchal characteristic of Pueblo society. When the daughters marry they bring their husbands to their mother's home or build in the immediate vicinity. The children of the mother must not marry a member of their mother's clan, nor of the father's clan if the relationship is close. This exogamous system prevents marriages between those of close blood relationship. Since the sons must marry outside of the clan and the children belong to the clan of the mother, it is evident that the continuation of a particular clan depends upon the mothers, a fact which further enhances their position in the organization.

All the Pueblos are divided into clans, the number varying from ten to thirty. Some of these are named for natural objects, some for plants, but the largest number bear the names of animals. There are no taboos connected with the system; that is, clan members are not forbidden to kill or eat the animal after which their group is named. Neither is there any form of clan worship of the totem. The lists of the clans of the Pueblos, as known, show that none of the clans is common to all of the villages. The clans named after natural objects which exist at a number of the Pueblos are the sun, water, fire and turquoise. Those which derive their names from plants and which are represented at a number of the villages are the corn, calabash, pine and tobacco. Clans named after the following animals are found at a number of the Pueblos; eagle, dear, turkey, coyote, bear, snake, badger, gopher, buffalo and wolf.

Recent investigations show that clan membership has some relation to offices both in civil and religious organization and that clan membership is a factor in marriage but that otherwise it plays no part in the social and religious organization of the Pueblo and could be dropped out without any very great change in the life of the community.

ART AND ARCHITECTURE OF THE NEW MEXICO INDIANS

The art of the New Mexico Indians, as all other phases of their lives, has a close connection with their beliefs. Designs in basketry, on pottery, and in weaving are sometimes connected with native symbolism. Sand paintings, as used in the ceremonies of the Navaho and the Pueblos, are distinctly productions portraying beliefs. The Kiva is a specialized building closely related to Indian ceremonial life.

WEAVING

The weaving of baskets and cotton cloth were arts practiced by the Pueblo Indians for centuries before the white man introduced sheep into the country. This pre-European textile industry was based on the use of yucca fibre, cotton, rabbits' hair and feathers. Native vegetal and mineral dyes supplied colors for designs in weaving blankets, baskets, sandals and other articles.

The Navaho blanket, or rug, is the most important product of the weaving of the New Mexico Indians because it is beautiful and useful. The Navaho first acquired sheep from the Pueblos among whom they had been introduced by the Spaniards. The weaving art was probably learned by the Navaho from the Pueblo Indians who had been captured in raids. Thus the Navaho blanket is produced by a nomadic Indian tribe from materials in the beginning obtained from Europeans and knowledge learned from the settled Indians of the Rio Grande Valley.

The wool is cleansed after shearing, carded and rolled preparatory to spinning. The spindle used by the Indians consists of a stick rarely more than two feet in length to which is attached a wooden disk four inches in diameter fastened about four inches from the lower end of the spindle.

The warp of the desired width and length is constructed on a temporary frame of four small poles from which it is removed after the strands of the warp have been securely fastened and held apart my means of a three ply rope woven around the threads at the top and bottom of the warp.

The loom consists of the two primary poles to which the warp is attached at the upper and lower ends by means of a cord which passes between each of the strands of the warp and around the pole. The primary, or warp poles, as they may be called, are made fast to two stationary beams; the one on the floor or ground, the other about six feet above the floor. In this manner the warp is held in a vertical position with each strand of the warp firmly fixed in its place. The weaver sits in front of the upright loom and inserts the woof.

In inserting the woof it is necessary that the threads of the woof pass alternately over and under a given thread of the warp. For this purpose the warp threads are divided into an upper and lower shed—the odd numbered threads of the warp comprising the upper shed and the even numbered threads the lower shed. These sheds are made in forming the warp by passing the warp thread alternately over and under the poles. The upper shed is held open by the shed-rod while the lower shed is opened by the heald-rod which lies along the outside of warp and attached to the alternate anterior threads of the warp. The weaver draws the heald-rod forward, opens the lower shed

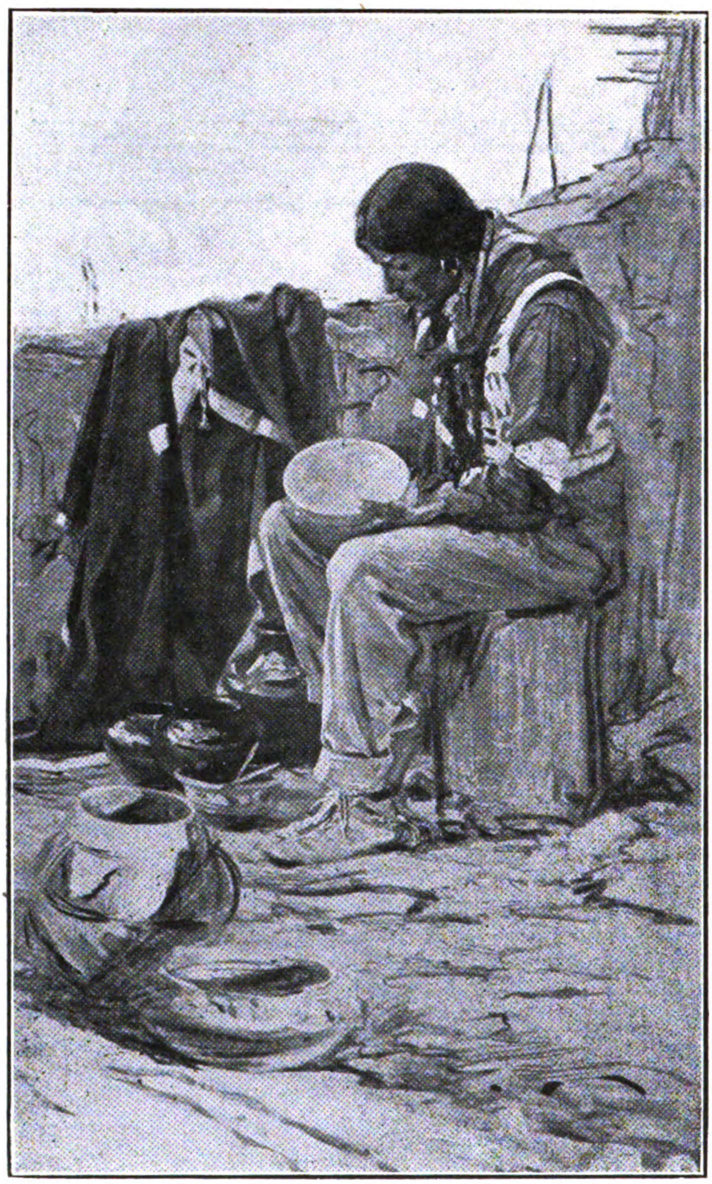


Photo by Museum Staff.

THE PUEBLO ARTIST—PAINTING BY GERALD CASSIDY and inserts a thread of the woof; then by bringing down the shed-rod the upper shed is opened and the thread of the woof is inserted. In this manner the threads of the woof are made to pass alternately over and under the threads of the warp.

The beauty of the Navaho blanket is in its geometric design created by the use of a variety of colors. One of the peculiarities in the weaving is the method of creating the pattern. The yarn of a given color is carried across the warp only the width of the design of that color so that one may see as many as twenty small balls of yarn hanging along the edge of the web of a Navaho blanket as it is being woven.

POTTERY

Form, ornament and color are developed in pottery. The shapes developed depend upon articles used before the introduction of pottery rather than upon the stage of culture of the group. It can be shown that the gourd and the basket determined the forms of early Pueblo pottery which was commonly formed either on the inside or the outside of baskets and which often took the shape of the gourd. The absence of the potter's wheel had the effect of keeping the art plastic while the absence of outside cultural influences made for simplicity and homogenity. Variety in form may be due to accident, imitation, or invention. The use of clay as cement for baskets may have, by accident, created a clay receptacle in the simple form of a cup. The plastic nature of clay probably explains the reproduction of existing forms and the moulding in clay of objects found in nature. The first pottery takes the shape of the article which is to be displaced by the clay product. Among the natural objects copied the gourd is the most varied and suggestive of forms. Shells are often imitated in clay. Vessels of stone, wood, and bark become by imitation the sources of shapes as well as woven articles such as baskets. The conscious change in the form through invention is a late stage in the development of pottery. Modification in shape may also result, as in the case of some recent types of Pueblo pottery, from a desire to produce articles that will please people of another race. Examples of this development may be seen in the pottery offered for sale by the Indians at the stations along the Santa Fe Railroad in New Mexico. These new shapes are rarely artistic which is due to the introduction of forms unfamiliar to the potter. The break with the past results in the production of an article that is neither Indian nor European.

Ornament as developed in the early stages of pottery was an outgrowth of ornamentation produced in the weaving of baskets. The basketry designs were first reproduced in pottery by indentations rather than with colors. The natural design in weaving is rectilinear and this characteristic is clearly reflected in Pueblo pottery the ornamentation of which is generally geometric in unpainted, painted, and glazed wares. Thus ornament in pottery is not an invention but the combination of ideas created in other arts. Probably unconscious decoration arises from the copying of lines and scrolls on natural objects, such as the marks on shells. The rope of clay used in constructing coiled pottery may suggest the portrayal of the snake. The designs in basketry produced by interlacing varied colored strands have been copied in incised, stamped, relieved, and painted patterns in pottery. The radiation of the pattern from the bottom is common in basketry and the geometric pattern is exact. The potter often copies the radiating design but the geometric accuracy is lost. In some cases the design painted on pottery is but a mere suggestion of radiation and further variation results from elaboration. Unconformity is increased due to the plastic, free-hand nature of the potter's art.

Coiled ware, also called corrugated; plain ware, and black-and-white painted ware, also known as two colored painted ware, are found in the ruins throughout the Pueblo area. The plain ware was usually made of coarse material and roughly finished for use in cooking and storing food. The coiled, or corrugated, ware takes its name from the method of construction, the ridges formed by the rope, or fillet of clay being left and used for ornamentation—a development peculiar to Pueblo pottery. The coil is started from the center of the bottom of the piece of pottery sometimes laid on the inside of a shallow basket or clay bowl while the upper part is completed by free-hand coiling. The rim is formed with a broad strip of clay. In various ways the ridge formed by the coil has been used in decoration; by smoothing a part of the surface, by checkered and meandered patterns which are produced by thumb-nail indentations, by incised lines, and by relieved designs.

In the black-and-white ware the coiled surface is smoothed, polished, and covered with a thin wash of fine clay which is called a "slip." The colors for painting are obtained from minerals and vegetal matter. In the early stage of decoration the designs consisted of dots, curved, and straight lines, which are developed into checkers, zigzags, chevrons, complex meanders, fretted designs, and scrolls; all in infinite variety of combination and detail but without confusion. In the second stage of ornamentation ideographic devices are used based on ideas taken from Indian beliefs concerning creation. In the third or modern period of design there is a tendency to mix the geometric and the ideographic. The designs are often in encircling horizontal zones, the neck forming one and the body of the vessel the other. The forms of black-and white ware are few and simple. Hemispherical and heart-shaped bowls are the simplest forms and probably those first made. The ollas or pot-shaped vessels, were developed from the bowl by addition of a neck. Bottles were made which differed from the ollas in that the necks were much narrower but they were rarely flattened as were the later type of

Pueblo pottery known as canteens. Vessels with handles, sometimes attached horizontally and sometimes vertically, were not uncommon. The handles were in some cases cylindrical in shape having been copied from the gourd, while in others they were loops of clay.

Formerly, it was believed that glazed ware did not exist in the Pueblo region but recent investigations have shown that there were two periods in which glazed ware marked the highest type of pottery made. This was produced by the use of a solution of salt water which created a true glaze.

Thus it may be seen that in a very conservative stage of culture the pottery art of the Pueblo Indians passed through a number of phases reaching its highest development toward the close of the pre-European period, but continuing to the present day in the forms of black polished, red polished, and two colored painted ware.

ARCHITECTURE

The Pueblo Indians for hundred of years before the advent of the Europeans built community houses of the materials at hand which were stone and adobe. Climatic conditions, resources of the land, social organization, and defense played a part in creating the Pueblo as it is found in the ruins and the present Indian towns of New Mexico.

Several types of dwellings were used by the Indians prior to the building of the Pueblos. The characteristics of the Pueblo that make it unique were probably gradually developed as one type of dwelling grew out of the preceding form. The simplest form of habitation found in the pre-European ruins is the excavated cave which was a natural opening in a cliff hollowed out in such manner as to leave a thin wall. From this developed the cave dwelling with a masonry façade which took the place of the thin natural wall in the earlier type. In the third type rooms were built on the talus slope in front of the cave. It may be that the cliff-Pueblo forms the link between the cave type and the Pueblo. The cliff-Pueblos were built on ledges which were protected by the overhanging rock. The floor space was bounded on three sides by the irregular curve of the three sides of the ledge. Terracing possibly originated in these sheltered cliff places. The round subterranean ceremonial kiva may have acquired both its shape and position as a result of the necessity of strictest economy in floor space. Some of the valley Pueblos have three sides in an irregular curve with the fourth side rectilinear and they are terraced from a central court to the outer walls. In the courts are round subterranean kivas. These characteristics of the valley Pueblos seem to have been taken over from the cliff-Pueblos.

Probably the plan that is common to the largest number of Pueblo ruins consists of four rectangular buildings in the form of a hollow square. These structures are four rooms in width on the ground floor, three on the second floor, two on the third floor, and one on the fourth floor. The buildings are terraced from the court toward the outer wall. Several round subterranean kivas, which vary from twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter, are located in the court. The rooms of the buildings are rarely larger than eight by ten feet. The Pueblos vary in size from 200 to 400 feet square.

Although the ground floor plan of some of the larger ruins covered a square area of several hundred feet and had as many as five stories, yet the principles of construction were simple. Cushing and Victor Mindeleff believed that Pueblo architecture is essentially a primitive art.

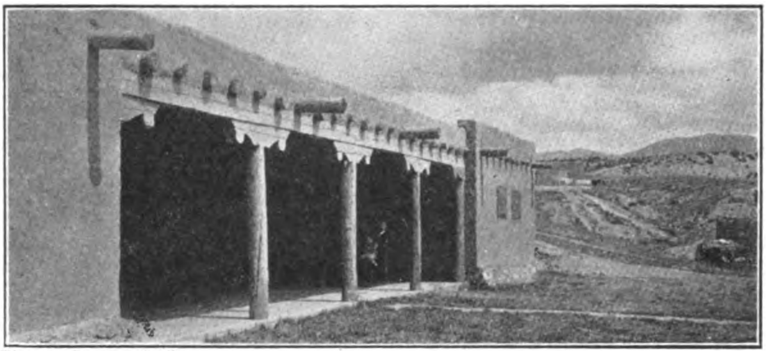


Photo by Museum Staff.

HOME OF S. G. MORLEY, SANTA FE

The absence of outlets on the ground floor caused these rooms to be in semi-darkness. There were no cellars, but the ground floor rooms answered the purpose by providing storage space. The Pueblos of the pre-European period which were made of adobe have been so completely destroyed that it is not always possible to determine the method of wall construction. In many places there are natural quarries of sandstone which was the material used in almost all of the walls that remain. Both in the case of adobe walls and the sandstone walls they were usually one foot in thickness, although in some instances they varied from four to six feet. The undressed sandstone slabs were laid with or without adobe mortar, chinked with small stones and plastered with adobe. A banded masonry effect was obtained by alternating layers of thick slabs and thin slabs.

The absence of the round arch in the openings of the walls is a marked characteristic not only of the Pueblos, ancient and modern, but also of the New Mexican Missions. Only one example of its use in creating a wall opening is found, that being in the mission of the Pecos ruin.

The windows, doorways, passageways and gateways are forms of openings in the walls. Doorways and windows are so similar that they are difficult to distinguish. Blankets and rabbit skins, which were attached to poles at the tops of the openings, were used to close the doorways in the older buildings. The openings were usually placed in the lee wall for protection against the southwest wind. An eastern exposure was, as it is today considered, the most desirable. No doors have been found in the pre-European ruins but are common in the present day pueblos both in the ground floor rooms and in the upper stories. The frame of the door on the attaching side is extended and the rounded ends fitted into sockets at the top and bottom. This method of swinging the door may be of the period since 1846. The sill is usually elevated above the ground and the floor. Transoms are often found. The doorways were sometimes narrowed at the bottom forming a T shaped entrance. It is supposed that the wide top was for the purpose of allowing a man with a burden on his back to pass through. A unique type of doorway was one found that was in the form of a large stone slab set in the wall with a circular hole cut in it which was closed with a smaller slab of stone. Doorways were generally quite small, a provision resulting from the defense motive and the absence of a method of closing them.

The location of the windows in the ancient Pueblos show a marked regularity of position but this feature has been lost in the modern buildings. The use of glass is a very recent development. Mica and selenite were used with the coming of the Europeans. In some cases the mica or selenite was set directly into the adobe while in others a primitive sash was employed which was decorated with incised designs. A selenite window ten by eighteen inches was large, the majority being smaller. All of the openings were accompanied by the lintel. Later construction often increased the structure above to such an extent that the lintel was not strong enough to carry the weight.

Having constructed the walls, and provided for openings, the next problem was the roof which was also the floor of the upper story and the unroofed porch formed by terracing. In the older buildings a room 8 by 10 feet was large. In more recent times they have been built much larger. These have been roofed over by the use of pillars supporting a girder since large timbers were difficult to obtain. On top of the vigas, poles from two to three inches in diameter were placed, then brush and grass and finally adobe. The floors of the rooms of the upper stories were often covered with thin slabs of stone. The vigas and the small poles were, in many cases, allowed to extend beyond the wall and a cornice formed on top of them for the protection of the wall which was then extended higher to form the fire wall which in turn was protected from the weather by the use of thin slabs of stone. Stone spouts of various types were used forming openings through the fire wall for the drainage of the rain water from the roof.

The wall and roof construction made necessary the use of ladders and trap doors. Ladders in the older buildings were generally used to gain access to the second story while stone and adobe steps in the form of a wall, and ladders, were both used for entrance to the stories above. The simplest form of the ladder was a single pronged pole with notches cut in it for steps, the forked end being placed against the wall. The two poled ladders were made by cutting notches in the poles and lashing the rungs to them with raw hide. Later, when iron came into use, holes were burned through the poles and the rungs inserted. A unique type was used at Zuñi consisting of three poles and two sets of rungs forming a double ladder. The number of rungs in these ladders varied from eight to ten. The trap doors which provide entrance into the kivas and the rooms from the roofs were usually framed and rectangular being large enough for the ladder and the entrance of a person. They were probably framed from an early time. Many examples may be seen where the four cross pieces of the frame were joined and held in place by pegs.

Photo by Museum Staff.

ROOF CONSTRUCTION AT PECON PUEBLO

Fire-places, furniture and interior decoration were not developed beyond other phases of the primitive architecture. The simplest form of fire-place was the cooking pit transferred to the inside of the house. They were placed in the middle of the room, the smoke being allowed to escape by way of the trap door in the roof. Some of these fire pits were circular, others rectangular. In dimensions they were about one foot deep and thirty inches in diameter lined with thin slabs of stone. The chimney and fire-place were brought into use after the coming of the Spaniards. One form was constructed by placing a stick across the corner from which a hood was built up of sticks and plastered with adobe. Another type, creating a square opening in the corner, was made by fixing two sticks in the wall at right angles to the wall and about one foot from the corner with a hood similar to the one described above. A later form consists of side supports made of stone slabs which support the hood, in some cases having a shelf above the fire opening. This type is common in the houses of people of Mexican descent. The chimneys were openings in the walls, the tops being rectangular and often capped with bottomless clay pots.

The furniture was not elaborate. Crude stools made from one piece of wood and a few attempts to imitate chairs of European origin are the only seating provision, except in some cases where a ledge takes the place of chairs. Tables are not used. Meals were eaten from the floor, blankets being used to sit upon. Poles suspended from the vigas were used for hanging up clothing, blankets, robes and other articles. Niches in the walls served as cupboards for household articles. Shelves were made of slabs of stone upon which were kept bowls and jars for grain. Chests for storing ceremonial paraphernalia are now made of boards. There are also chests with a countersunk lid made from a single piece of wood. The mealing trough is an important part of the household furnishings. It is constructed of thin slabs of sandstone and divided into three compartments by partitions of the same material. Three metates resembling a scoop shovel and made of cellular basalt were placed in the trough. On the first of these the grain was crushed; on the second, brayed; and on the third, pulverized. This type of milling apparatus was in use at the time of the advent of the Spaniards. The mano, or grinding stone, was made of rough basalt for use in the first and second divisions while sandstone manos served in the pulverizing process. The manos were generally cylindrical in shape about the size of two fists placed side by side. On the under side they were worn flat from constant use. Mortars and pestles, also used for grinding purposes, have been found. Looms for weaving blankets were found in the kivas as well as in the houses, the rafters and holes in the floor furnishing a means of setting up the loom.

The cooking pits and the dome-shaped ovens were outside the houses. The latter in its present form originated in the Spanish period. The pit was a small depression, usually round, about eighteen inches in diameter and lined with adobe or slabs of sandstone. From it developed an underground oven which may be the forerunner of the dome-shaped oven. The latter was built on a circular base of masonry from three to five feet in diameter, being brought to a point three to five feet from the ground. This large hive-shaped oven was plastered with adobe inside and outside. They are found at all of the present day Pueblos. In both types of ovens the inside is heated, the coals drawn out and the articles placed inside, the opening being sealed with a stone and plastered up with adobe. The food is sometimes left for as long as twelve hours. There is a small conduit about three inches in diameter leading from the outside to the fire pit.

Sand paintings are made as a part of the initiation ceremonies in the case of the Zuñi Kokko Society and of the rituals of healing in the nine day rite of the Navaho known as *Hasjelti Dailjis*. On the fifth day of this ceremony the first of the sand paintings is made which is followed by more elaborate ones on the three succeeding days. The design is constructed in the center of the floor of the medicine-lodge which is built especially for the occasion. The back-ground for the painting is made of yellow sand forming a square of about four feet. (Earlier in the rituals a form representing the rainbow is drawn over the sweat houses. The figure has a circular head and a body and legs of straight lines. The body is several times longer than true proportion.) Three drawings are made on the yellow sand similar to that of the rainbow by using sands of various colors. Turkey wands from the north, south, and west are drawn along three sides of the painting. Then a line of sacred meal is added extending from the eastern edge of the painting toward the center with four foot-prints along this line. The most elaborate of the

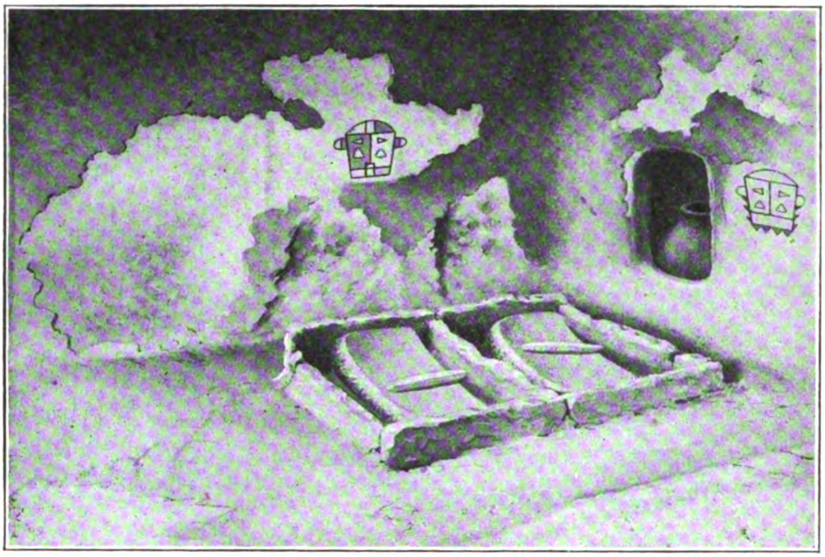


Photo by Museum Staff.

RESTORED ROOM RITO DE LOS FRIJOLES

three figures represents *Hasjelti*. A line forming a square about his head stands for the concentrated winds. At the corners of the square eagle feathers are pictured, held in place by cotton cords. The straight lines forming the features of this supernatural being are symbolic. The upper horizontal lines of the face denote clouds while the lower ones represent the first vegetation used by man. The vertical lines symbolize rain. The chin of the figure is covered with corn pollen. The head is encircled with a red line which denotes red sunlight. Turquoise earrings in the form of pendants complete the adornment of the head.

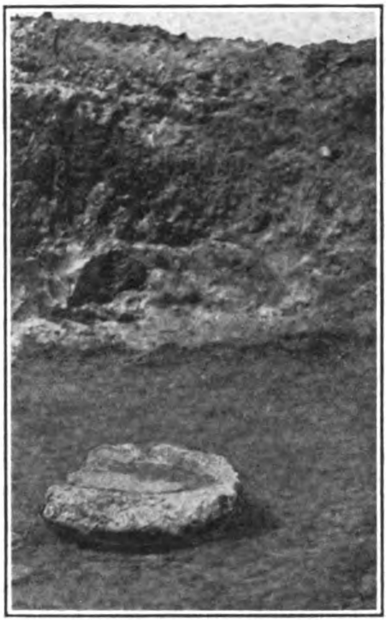


Photo by Museum Staff.

METATE IN PLACE—WESTERN SOCORRO COUNTY

The body is drawn of long, straight lines in several colors. It is several times longer than the natural body. The legs are covered with fringed leggings of white buckskin, while beaded moccasins tied on with cotton cord cover the feet. The center figure representing the god, *Hostjobokon,* is similar to the other figures but with fewer symbolic adornments. The third image is a drawing of *Hostjoghon*. The eagle feather and the circular symbol for red sunshine form parts of his head decoration as well as earrings of turquoise. Attached to his wrists are fox skin ribbons ornamented on the ends with beaded pendants. He carries wild turkey and eagle feather wands brightened with red, blue and yellow sunbeams. The entire design is surrounded by the figure representing the rainbow. The final effect, as shown by the illustrations in Stevenson's work, is very pleasing.

Following the completion of the painting, which requires the time of several men for three or four hours, the invalid for whom the ceremony is being held enters the lodge, steps in the footprints along the line of sacred meal, and takes his seat on the middle figure of the sand painting. Then the persons who are representing the supernatural beings portrayed in the picture bound into the hut hooting wildly. This ritual is believed to be highly satisfying to the gods who cure the patient of his malady. With the conclusion of the ceremony the painting is obliterated but followed on the succeeding days by more elaborate designs containing a larger number of characters.

GAMES OF THE NEW MEXICO INDIANS

A variety of games are played by the New Mexico Indians. In some cases they are used to determine the will of the gods. According to tradition, many of them were first played by supernatural beings. These contests may be classified as those of chance, of skill, and of guessing. The most distinctive game of the Zuñi Indians is the one called *Sholiwi*. It was originally for the purpose of war divination and played only by the priests of the bow. Later it came to be commonly played at the semiannual festival of the Twin War Gods. It is believed that future policies may be determined successfully by this game. The paraphernalia consists of: four pieces of split cane marked with red and black paint, the markings on each one designating one of the four directions—each player has a set of these; a deer skin drawn over a basket which is suspended from the ceiling, and a buffalo skin placed on the floor upon which is drawn a circle with four openings. The players in turn throw their cane pieces against the suspended basket banking them into the circle on the floor. Each player represents a direction and the position of the piece which is of the same direction as the player determines, in part, the score. The lay of the other pieces also affects the final result. If a man of an east clan is casting and the piece representing the East falls on top of the other pieces, then he makes a score of four, if the other three pieces lay concave side up he receives ten points and an additional throw, if the three fall convex side up he receives a score of five, if two lay concave side up and one convex it counts three, and if two lay convex and one concave the player scores one point.

The belief concerning the origin of the hidden-ball game called *Kayonti* played by the Jicarilla Apache is as follows: It was dark in the underworld, the only light being torches of eagle feathers. Some of the creatures wanted light but others who were of nocturnal habits desired the darkness to continue. It was finally decided that the people should play *Kayonti* to decide the matter. The game consisted of guessing in which of a number of hollow canes a small stone was placed by the opposing party. The people were divided into those favoring the dark and those favoring the light. The magpie and the quail told the people of the light in which cane the people of the dark had hidden the object. The first time the people of the light won the black bear departed; the second time, the brown bear; the third time, the mountain lion; the fourth time the people of the light were victorious the sun came up and the owl departed.

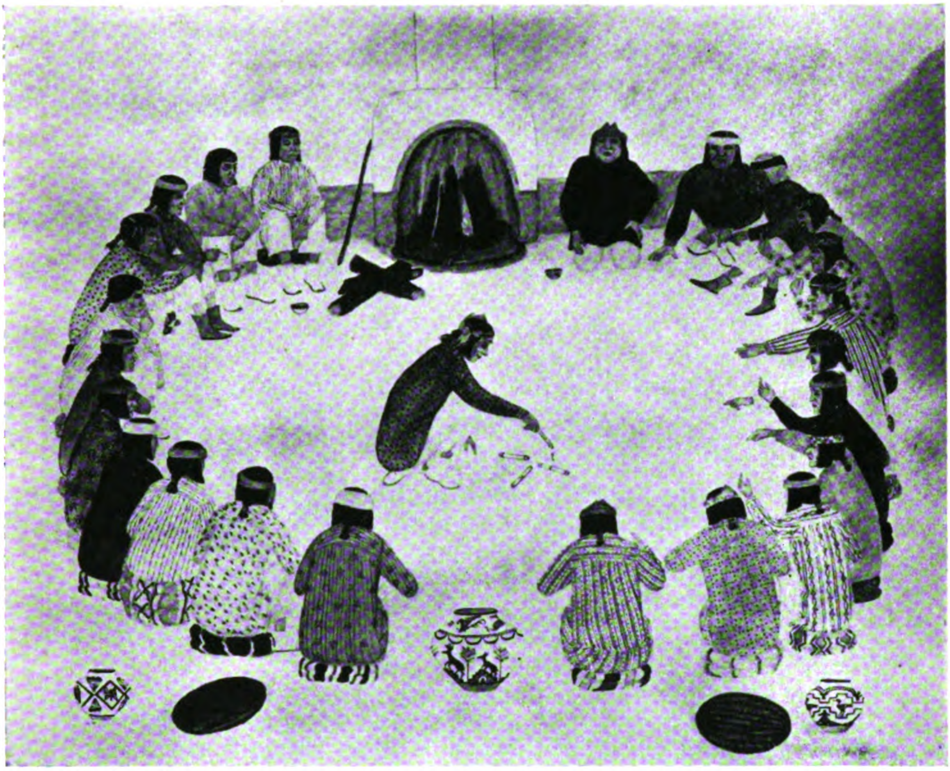


Photo by Museum Staff.

SIA BOYS PLAYING "KAINEHM"—PAINTING BY INDIAN, VELINO SHIJE

The moccasin game played by the Navaho is a guessing game. Eight moccasins are partially buried, four being placed on each side of the fire. The counters consist of 102 splints about nine inches long. The players are divided into two groups. The side hiding the stone places a blanket screen in front of its moccasins and then places the stone in one of them. The opposite side guesses in which moccasin the stone was put. If they strike the correct one then the right of hiding the stone goes to them, if not, the side hiding scores either four, six, or ten, depending on the location of the moccasin struck to the one that contained the stone.

Settilth is a Navaho game of chance. It is believed that this was one of the four games brought from the underworld. The pieces consist of three small sticks about five inches long which are round on one side and flat on the other. These are thrown end down on a flat stone in the center of a circle of small stones that are used as counters. If three of the sticks come down flat side up then the player scores five. If three of the sticks come down round side up then the count is ten. Otherwise there is no score.

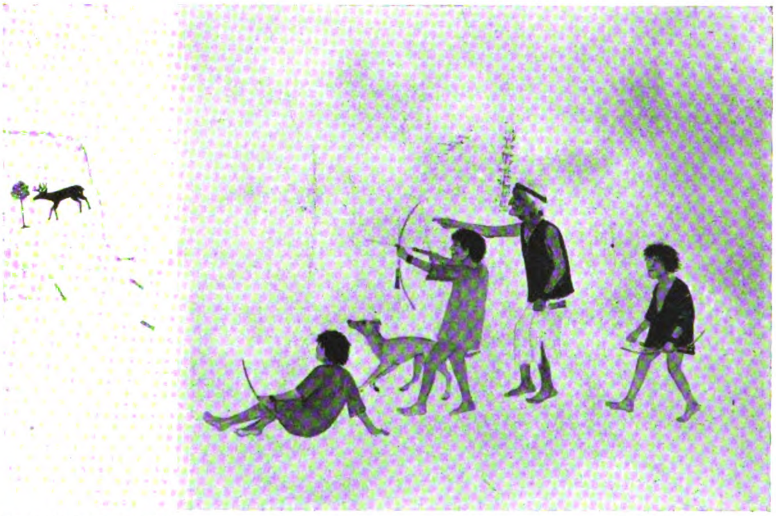


Photo by Museum Staff.

TRAINING THE ASPIRING HUNTERS—PAINTING BY VELINO SHIJE

Inaani is a game of chance common to the Keresan Pueblos. At Acoma it is played with a small piece of bone which is black on one side and white on the other. This object is thrown into the air. If it comes down black side up the player scores ten and is allowed another throw. If it comes down white the player receives five points. The game ends when one of the players receives thirty points.

A feature common to many of the games is the use of a circle of stones as counters. If the first player makes five he counts off five and places his marker at that point. If the second player also makes five the first player is "killed" and must go back to the beginning and start over again.

CHAPTER III

THE HISTORIC AND PREHISTORIC PUEBLOS

TAOS PUEBLO

The location of this mountain Pueblo is one of great beauty with the Taos Plain extending to the south and west at an altitude of 7,000 feet and the Taos Mountains rising to 13,000 feet to the north and east. The Pueblo is situated on both sides of Pueblo Creek (a short distance above the junction with Lucero Creek), which flows southwest through a deep gorge into the Embudo Canyon of the Rio Grande. The general location is a little south and east of the center of Taos County.

The Taos (Tiwa) name for the Pueblo is *Tuata*, meaning "down at the village," from which the Spanish form Taos is probably derived. In the San Juan (Tewa) dialect Taos is called *Pinso Onywin*, meaning "great mountain Pueblo." The Isleta (Tiwa) call it *Tuwirat;* the Jemez (Towa) give it the name *Yulata;* the Cochiti (Keresan) give it the name *Tyetyshokotsae*, meaning "the north corner Pueblo." In the Zuñi language the Pueblo is known as *Topoliana Kuin*, "place of cottonwood trees." The Jicarilla Apache call it *Kohohlte* and the Navaho (Athapascan) speak of Taos as *Tqowhul*.

The population of the Taos Pueblo had declined in a marked degree by the middle of the eighteenth century if the figures are to be trusted. Benavides, 1630, placed the number of people at 2,500 and Vetancur, 1680, at 2,000. In 1760 the census report fixed the population at 505 which dropped as low as 323 in 1890. The present pueblo shelters 517 people.

The Pueblo stands in the middle of the land owned by these people. This grant consists of four square leagues which was surveyed in 1859, including within the boundaries 17,361 acres. It was based on the custom of the Spanish government of granting to the Indian towns all the lands within the area one league in each direction from the church. Taos was not one of the Pueblos that based its claim on a 1689 grant by Cruzate. The Taos Indians petitioned, April 11, 1815, asking that they be given a document for their traditional tract of four square leagues. This desire was due to the fact that settlements had been made upon the grant. The investigation showed that about one-fifteenth of the Pueblo lands were occupied by settlers, who claimed that the league had been marked in 1793 and the Indians at that time had agreed to recognize the grants within the league;

that two villages and 200 people would be affected if the league were completely restored to the Indians; that the holdings were based on documents showing purchase; and that the Indians had invited settlers to locate for protection against the Comanche. The governor of New Mexico held that the claim to a league was valid and that it was illegal for the Indians to sell any part of it. He advised that some compromise be agreed upon.

In 1823 a dispute arose between the people of Arroyo Seco and the Taos Indians over the water rights of Lucero Creek. The report of the Ayuntamiento of Taos, December 23, 1823, to the governor was favorable to the Indians. These land and water disputes have continued to the present time. The surveyor general for New Mexico investigated the Taos claim August 2, 1856, and the United States Congress confirmed the grant to the Pueblo December 22, 1858. The final step, the issuing of the patent by the Bureau of Public Lands, was consummated in 1864.

Ruins have been discovered in the vicinity of Taos. About 100 yards north of the present buildings is a mass of adobe that marks a former residence of these Indians. Several kinds of pottery may be found in the neighborhood and it is believed that the site was inhabited in historic times. According to tradition the pueblo was built in a similar fashion to the present, that is, two large buildings terraced in pyramid shape five stories high. These former residences bore the same names as the present ones, namely: Hlauuma, north house; and Hlaukwina, south house. During 1921 a ruin was uncovered at Llano near Ranchos de Taos. This pre-European structure consists of a subterranean kiva, or ceremonial chamber, surrounded by rooms. In the floor of the kiva was found a plastered pit, fire-place and parts of four upright posts that formerly supported the roof. Other ruins are found in the vicinity of La Costilla, near the Colorado line, that may have been former homes of the Taos Indians. Some of the clans claim that they formerly inhabited the ruins in the vicinity of Ojo Caliente in the southeastern part of Rio Arriba County.

The buildings of the present Pueblo of Taos are unique among the pueblos of New Mexico. The pyramid shaped houses stand on opposite sides of Pueblo Creek. Each of these provides living quarters for some 250 people. A church and friary were built before 1630 and were probably destroyed during the Pueblo Revolt of 1680. West of North House the ruins of a large mission church was standing in 1914, a large, heavily butressed, roofless tower conspicuously marking the place of the former edifice that was destroyed during the Indian and Mexican uprising of 1847. The modern church of the Pueblo is located at the west end of the open space between the two community houses, on the north side of the creek. The kivas are not as in many pueblos separate from the houses but are rooms within the large buildings set apart for ceremonial purposes connected with the ancient beliefs.

It is probable that Barrionuevo and Alvardo, captains of the Coronado expedition, visited the Pueblo but the first mention of the village under its present name was by Juan de Oñate July 14, 1598, who gave it the name San Miguel. Although Friar Francisco de Zamora of the Oñate expedition was assigned the Taos Pueblo as a part of his missionary district he probably did not begin the missionary work as he returned to Mexico in 1601. About 1617 the mission San Gerónimo was established by Friar Pedro de Miranda. Benavides stated in 1630 that there was a church and friary and that 2,500 Indians had been baptized. Miranda was the first friar to lose his life in missionary work in New Mexico. A few days after Christmas in the year 1631, a number of Taos Indians having determined to do what they considered a service to their community entered the monastery and killed the two soldiers and the friar. The fact that there were only two soldiers stationed at Taos shows the justice of the oft repeated complaint of the missionaries that they were not given proper military protection. It appears that rebellion was planned in the middle of the seventeenth century for the purpose of driving the Spanish settlers from the country but some of the Pueblos refused to co-operate and nothing happened. The first migration of the Taos Indians to the plains of Kansas occurred at this time but they were persuaded to return soon after by Juan de Archuleta.

On the day fixed for the Pueblo Revolt, August 10, 1680, the Taos under Jaca joined their despised neighbors, the Tewa, against a common enemy, the Spaniards. The church and the friary were destroyed and Friar Antonio de Mora and Friar de Pedrosa were killed, after which the warriors joined the Tewa in besieging the Spanish capital, Santa Fe. During the period of independence from Spanish rule which continued for twelve years, the Indians quarreled among themselves; the Taos, Keres, and the Pecos allied against the Tewa. Attacks from the Comanche and the Ute from the north were also a source of danger. When De Vargas arrived at Taos in September, 1692, the Indians fled to the mountains but were persuaded to return by the Picuris leader Tupatú but when De Vargas again visited the pueblo in July, 1694, the Indians refused to submit to Spanish authority. In the summer of 1696 another uprising occurred during which Friar Antonio Carboneli of Taos was killed. Finally in the fall of 1698 De Vargas marched to the north, attacked the Taos Indians in the mountains where they had fled, and, October 8th, succeeded in establishing a permanent peace.

Taos suffered from attacks not only from the Ute but also from the Comanche. These Indians as well as the Apache increased their aggressiveness in the eighteenth century. In 1716 and again in 1760 the Comanche raided the pueblo, carrying many of the Taos Indians into captivity.

PICURIS PUEBLO

Picuris Pueblo is located on the north side of Pueblo Creek about a mile above the junction of that stream with Penasco Creek. From their junction the two creeks are known as Embudo Creek which flows west about ten miles, emptying into the Rio Grande at Rinconada. It is twenty miles south of Taos and forty miles north of Santa Fe, in a straight line. There is a rise of over 1,500 feet between Rinconada and Picuris, the former having an altitude of 5,829 feet and the latter an altitude of 7,452 feet. The location is one of mountain isolation in the southern part of Taos County, although the town of Rio Pueblo with a population of 113 and Penasco with a population of 843, are in the vicinity.

The name Picuris was applied by the Spanish, also by the Cochiti and Sia Pueblos, the origin and meaning being unknown. The Indians of the pueblo in their own language, which is the Picuris dialect of the Tiwa language, call their Pueblo *Pinuelta.* In the Tewa dialects it is known as *Pinyi Onywin,* meaning "mountain gap Pueblo." The Isleta (Tiwa) call it *Samnai;* the Jemez (Towa), *Pekwilita;* and the Jicarilla Apache (Athapascan), *Tokele.*

Picuris, in common with the other Pueblos, has declined in population in historic times. Benavides in 1630 estimated that the pueblo contained 2,000 people and Vetancur gave it a population of 3,000. In 1760 the Pueblo was reported to contain 328 people. Since the American occupation the figure has varied between 225 and 125.

The land controlled by this Pueblo consists of a square area of 17,460 acres. This grant was made to the pueblo on the basis of a document supposedly issued at El Paso by Governor Cruzate, September 25, 1689. The United States Congress confirmed the grant December 22, 1858, after an investigation by the United States surveyor general for New Mexico. It was surveyed in 1859 and patented to the people of the Pueblo in 1864. The town of Rio Pueblo lies within the grant. The document which formed the basis of the grant was proved to be a forged paper.

Land disputes were of common occurrence. In 1829 the alcade, Juan de Jesus Martinez, protested against the cession of lands adjoining the pueblo. On May 14, 1829, a petition was presented to the governor of New Mexico on behalf of the Pueblo protesting against the granting of lands within the common lands of the pueblo to Rafael Fernandez and Miguel Gonzales. In the petition it was stated that these men asked for grants and then immediately sold them. As a result of the petition the territorial deputation refused to give possession to Rafael Fernandez and his associates.

Several ruins exist in the vicinity of the pueblo. Just north of the inhabited houses is a structure known as the Old Castle. It is still standing to a height of three stories and is said to have been five stories in height. Another ruin is called *Kakethoa,* meaning "old Pueblo." It stands on the ridge between the Pueblo and the Penasco Creek. Black-and-white potsherds with geometric designs, black incised ware and corrugated ware were found about the ruins as well as grinding stones.

There are a number of dwellings in the Pueblo that are unoccupied which is a sign of the existence of a larger population in the past than at present. The distinctive buildings are not the dwellings of prominent individuals of the Pueblo, but those relating to the beliefs of the people. There are four subterranean kivas having two openings, one for the ladder and one as an outlet for the smoke. Another prominent building is the Scalp House. This is a one-story building with a tower two stories high. In the openings of the tower hang scalps that their ancestors took from the enemies of the tribe years ago. These are only removed at the time of festivals when they are carried in the processions. The first mission church and friary were built in the early part of the seventeenth century. The present church, cruciform in shape, was built in the early part of the eighteenth century and is kept in excellent condition. In the rear of the nave, which is 25 feet in width, a choir loft 9 feet wide extends across over the entrance. A carved balustrade protects the front of the gallery. In each of the transepts is an altar of crude masonry; on the one in the north transept are two statues about 3 feet high of San José and Nuestra Señora del Carmen, over the south transept altar is a crucifix of crude workmanship. On the walls of the transepts there are three old paintings. Behind the altar in the chancel is a large wooden reredos occupying the full width of the chancel which is filled with paintings. These paintings are for the most part on wood and of inferior workmanship. In the upper part of the reredos, Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe, San Rafael, San Antonio, San Miguel and San Juan Nepomusen are portrayed. Below these is a large canvas of San Lorenzo carrying a gridiron. On one side of the picture of San Lorenzo is a painting of San Francisco and on the other of San Antonio de Padua. A statuette of Santa Rita stands on the altar while on one side is a painting of San Lorenzo. The patron saint of the pueblo is San Lorenzo and on the saint's day, August 10th, the annual festival is held which, according to Prince, is entirely different from the annual festivals of the other Pueblos.

The first definite historical notice of the Pueblo was made by Oñate who spoke of it as the large Pueblo of Picuris. He stated that he visited it July 13, 1598, and named it San Buenaventura. When the Pueblos were divided for religious purposes among the friars of the Oñate expedition, the Province of Picuris was included in the assignment made September 9, 1598, to Friar

Francisco de Zamora. It is not probable that he did anything toward bringing these Indians to accept Christianity, for he was among those who, becoming discouraged with the task of occupying New Mexico, returned to Mexico in 1601. The mission of San Lorenzo was established between 1612 and 1622 by Friar Martin de Arvide. Benavides, in 1630, stated that there was a very fine church and friary at the Pueblo also that the Indians were very hostile to the Christian religion. In 1632 Asencio de Zarate was in charge of the mission. He may have taken Arvide's place at Picuris in 1622 when the latter went to take charge of Jemez mission.

Luis Tupatú, a Picuris Indian, was one of the leaders in the Pueblo Revolt, being twice chosen as the successor to Popé. On August 10, 1680, Friar Matias de Rendon was killed and these Indians joined the Taos and those of the Tewa Pueblos in the attack upon Santa Fe. When De Vargas appeared before the Pueblo in the course of the Reconquest, October 5, 1692, the Pueblos submitted without offering resistance but in the summer of 1694 they joined other Pueblos in opposition to the Spaniards. During the following year they were brought under control but June 2, 1696, they were involved in another rebellion which resulted in the temporary desertion of the pueblos and the killing of five friars and twenty-one other Spaniards. This revolt was ended by De Vargas, October 26, 1696, at which time some eighty-four women and children were captured and made servants of the Spanish soldiers. For some unknown cause the Picuris, in company with the Taos, deserted their pueblos in 1704, moving northeast some 350 miles to a place called El Cuartelejo, which has been located twelve miles north of Scott City, Kansas. The remains in this locality show that a pueblo was built there by New Mexico Indians. Two years after this migration the governor, Francisco Cuerbo, sent his *sargento-mayor* with orders to induce these Indians to return, which was successfully accomplished. According to the reports the pueblo between 1680 and 1750 was reduced from 3,000 to 300 inhabitants.

THE CHAMA VALLEY RUINS

There are no modern pueblos in the Chama Valley but a large number of ruins exist in the area for which the Tewa have names. On the north side of the river there are large community house ruins along the Ojo Caliente and El Rito, northern tributaries of the Chama, and along the Chama between the mouths of these rivers. Toward the south and west of Abiquiu, ruins of small houses were discovered in the region known as the Gallinas district. Large community house ruins are also found along the south side of the Chama Valley between Abiquiu and the Rio Grande, in the valley of Oso Creek. Some of these ruins have been described by Bandelier, Hewett, and Jeançon but few of them have been excavated. Remains of community houses are common, consisting of large structures built around courts. Circular kivas are a part of the ruins. The advanced condition of decay results from the fact that these pueblos were generally built of adobe. Potsherds of the corrugated, the incised, the black-and-white, and red polished ware are found scattered about in the vicinity of the ruins. In the names of these former villages the term *Onywinkeyi* is the Tewa designation for "pueblo ruin."

In the middle of Ojo Caliente Valley there are five important ruins. *Ponyinpakeri Onywinkeyi,* meaning "plumed arrow shrub beds height" is the first pueblo ruin met with as one proceeds up the valley. It is located on the left bank of the river about six miles from the mouth of the Ojo Caliente River. Four miles further north and three miles south of the town of Ojo Caliente on the same side of the river as the above ruin is the remains of another pueblo called *Nunte Onywinkeyi,* meaning "ashes estufa pueblo ruin." One mile south of Ojo Caliente, on the right bank of the Ojo Caliente River, exists *Posi Onywinkeyi* which means "greenness Pueblo ruin." This ruin is on a bluff about 140 feet above the bed of the river. According to Tewa tradition their hero Poseueve was born at this ancient pueblo. Ten large buildings (with thirteen kivas) which could house 2,000 people, constructed of adobe is the briefest description that may be given of this ruin. The two other ruins of the valley are located opposite each other immediately south of the junction with Comanche Creek, which flows from the east into Ojo Caliente River. *Howiri Onywinkeyi,* meaning "gray point Pueblo ruin," on the left bank, consists of the ruins of seven buildings constructed of adobe with an outside measurement of 1,361 feet. The ruins contain eight circular kivas, the rooms are about 6 by 9 feet, the usual size. Potsherds are common. *Hunpobi Onywinkeyi,* meaning "flower of the one seeded juniper Pueblo ruin," is opposite Howiri on the right bank of the Ojo Caliente. The buildings entirely enclose one plaza and all but enclose another, in addition there are three other structures that appear to be separate from the main buildings. Kivas are located in the courts and on the outside there being seven in all ranging from 30 to 50 feet in diameter. The site appears to have been selected, as Pueblos sites generally were, with a view to defense.

Along the north bank of the Chama River between the mouth of the Ojo Caliente River and El Rito River there are three ruins. *Kapo Onywinkeyi,* meaning "leafy water Pueblo ruin," is two miles north from the mouth of Ojo Caliente River and one mile north of the Chama. About one mile north of the Kapo ruin is *Shupora Onywinkeyi,* meaning "cicada head Pueblo ruin." Two miles south of the mouth of El Rito River and one mile north of the Chama is the third of this group of ruins called *Tsaman Onywinkeyi,* which means "wrestling Pueblo ruin."

In the neighborhood of the town of El Rito there are two ruins. One of these, *Pianuge Onywinkeyi*, meaning "pink below Pueblo ruin," is one-half mile east of the town. Only a low mound with here and there a potsherd marks the ruin. Three miles southeast of El Rito on the right bank of the river of the same name is *Sanpanwe Onywinkeyi*, the meaning of which is unknown. This has been considered one of the largest ruins. It consisted of a central building with two courts and a number of outlying buildings that seemed to form secondary plazas. There probably were eleven separate buildings and six kivas. The building material was almost entirely adobe.

South of the Chama and west of Abiquiu are two ruins that have Tewa names. *Simpinyiwe Onywinkeyi*, meaning "porcupine mountain Pueblo ruin," is about thirty miles west of Abiquiu and ten miles south of the Chama in the region known as the Gallinas Bad Lands through which the trail to Chaco Canyon passes. *Tsipiny Onywinkeyi* Pueblo ruin, meaning "flaking stone mountain," is eight miles west of Abiquiu and five miles south of the Chama on the point of land formed by the junction of Polvadera and Cañones creeks. The site was 800 feet above the creek and the walls were built flush with the sides of the cliff. Only one trail led up from the valley below. The Pueblo was constructed of stone, three stories high. Portions of the second story walls are still standing. The fifteen kivas were subterranean. On the eastern slope cliff dwellings of the excavated type were probably used in some cases as dwellings and in some cases as burial places. According to Tewa tradition this large pueblo was the frontier post for the protection of the Tewa country from raiders coming into the upper Rio Grande Valley from the northwest.

In the immediate vicinity of Abiquiu there are several ruins. The town which is now populated by people of Mexican and Indian descent is believed to have been a Tewa town in the seventeenth century, and the site of an ancient ruin. In the middle of the eighteenth century it became a settlement of *genizaros;* that is, those Indians rescued from Indian captors. The Tewa name is *Abeshuu*, meaning "chockecherry end." A fourth of a mile south of Abiquiu is a ruin known as *Abeshu Onywinkeyi.* Foundations of rooms extend for some 900 yards along the mesa. About one mile east of Abiquiu stands the ruin of the Indian mission known as Capilla de Santa Rosa (Chapel of Saint Rose). *Poshukeri Onywinkeyi*, meaning "squash projecting height Pueblo ruin," is the name of a ruin about two miles east of Abiquiu and one-half mile south of the Chama. Near Mariana three miles east of Abiquiu lying between the main road and the river is an unnamed ruin.

Along the banks of Oso Creek there are three large Pueblo ruins. This creek flows from the southwest into the Chama, almost opposite the mouth of Ojo Caliente River. *Teewi Onywinkeyi*, meaning "little cottonwood Pueblo ruin," is about one mile from the Chama. It was constructed of adobe, forming a rectangle of two courts 525 feet long and 210 feet wide, the walls having an outside measurement of 1,470 feet. There are ten circular subterranean kivas, some in the courts and some outside, although in the case of these depressions it is always possible that some of them may have been reservoirs rather than kivas. Ascending the Oso Valley the second ruin some two miles from the Chama, also on the right bank, is *Ku Onywinkeyi,* meaning "stone Pueblo ruin." Only a mound remains of the former Pueblo which probably consisted of a long building with wings at the north and south ends. There are two depressions that were probably kivas, also the remains of a tower and a shrine a short distance from the ruin. Stone implements, potsherds and arrow heads were found. The third Pueblo of the group is *Pesere Onywinkeyi,* meaning "shove stick Pueblo ruin," which is located five miles from the Chama, on the left bank of Oso Creek, 300 feet above the bed of the stream. The buildings were joined together in a rectangle 2,000 feet by 125 and divided into four courts. Stone implements are common but not so with pottery. Some red, incised, and black-and-white ware were found and one piece of glazed ware but no black nor corrugated ware. No kivas were located which may be the result of Spanish occupation of the site. On the right bank were discovered terraced gardens similar to those noted in the Ojo Caliente Valley and the Gallinas Valley.

SAN JUAN PUEBLO

The Pueblo of San Juan is located twenty-five miles northwest of Santa Fe on the east bank of the Rio Grande and two miles north of the mouth of the Chama River which flows into the Rio Grande from the west. The altitude is 5,601 feet. The area is believed to have been an inland lake in an earlier geologic time.

The name, San Juan de Caballeros, is said to have been applied when Oñate established the first Spanish settlement in this district. The Indians at the time occupied both sides of the river but agreed according to the story to give up their houses on the west side of the river for the use of the Spanish settlers. The San Juan (Tewa) name *Okeonwi,* the meaning of which is unknown was applied to two former Pueblos as well as the present one. The Taos (Tiwa) call San Juan, *Pakabaluyu,* meaning "where the Rio Grande opens into the plain." The Hopi call it *Junpaka Tewa,* meaning "last Tewa," and the Navaho call it *Kin Klechini,* meaning "red house people."

The population of the pueblo was given as 300 in 1680. In 1760 it was recorded as 316; in 1805, 194; in 1850, 568, which figure probably included people of Mexican descent; 1860, 341; and 1910, 387. It is probable that the population since 1680 has varied between 300 and 400. The figures do not seem to justify the tradition among the San Juan Indians that they formerly occupied a place of leadership among the Tewa Indians, however, it may be that the population of the pueblo was larger in the period prior to 1680.

These Indians were granted an area a "league square," that is, a league in each direction from the church which amounted to four square leagues. It was surveyed in 1859 for 17,547 acres, the claim having been confirmed by the United States Congress December 22, 1858. The patent was issued in 1864. A document found in the Santa Fe Archives purported to be a grant of land to the Pueblo by Cruzate, September 25, 1689. This was one of twelve spurious documents relating to Indian Pueblo grants. The land of the Pueblo extends along both sides of the Rio Grande from the Town of Alcalde, on the north, to within a short distance of Espanola. It is approximately five miles square. It was probably in the year 1821 that the Indians protested to the commandant-general of the Internal Provinces stating that their lands did not extend the full league as did those of other pueblos who had not been as loyal vassals of the king. Under the date October 11, 1821, the commandant-general García Cónde ordered the acting governor of New Mexico to maintain the Indians in the possession of their lands.

Ruins exist on both sides of the Rio Grande in the vicinity of San Juan. Truchas Creek flows into the Rio Grande from the east about ten miles north of the mouth of the Chama River. About one mile south of Truchas Creek on the east bank of the Rio Grande is *Sanshu Onywinkeyi,* meaning "corn silk Pueblo ruin." Only a low mound remains to mark this earlier village of these Indians. Between this and the next important site in the direction of San Juan is a nameless ruin where pottery is found but it is not certain whether this was the location of a Pueblo. Three miles south of Truchas Creek and about one-half mile from the east bank of the Rio Grande is *Pioge Onywinkeyi,* meaning "Pueblo ruin down at the woodpecker place." Only a low mound marks the place which is the usual effect when adobe was used in construction. One mile north of the present San Juan Pueblo is *Oke Onywinkeyi,* the meaning of which is unknown. This is pointed to as the first of the three San Juan pueblos called *Oke.* A few potsherds and, as usual, a low mound mark the site. The reason given for the abandonment of the location was that flood conditions prevailed. The second of the *Oke* towns has not been located but it was probably in the immediate vicinity of the present Pueblo which the Indians call *Oke* and which is known generally as San Juan. On the west side of the Rio Grande opposite San Juan is *Yunynge Onywinkeyi,* meaning "Pueblo ruin down at the mocking bird place." The Village of Chamita covers a part of this site of a former Pueblo. It was here that the first Spanish settlement was made in the fall of 1598. Less than a mile to the north is Pueblito, the Tewa name being *Kunyan Onywin*, meaning "turquoise Pueblo," which is occupied by the San Juan Indians.

The modern church buildings are a noticeable part of this Pueblo. The old mission church was razed when the new church was constructed on the site. The old church was a typical New Mexico mission in style. It was made of adobe, was 25 feet in width and roofed by means of vigas. The bells were hung in a large arched opening in an arched extension of the façade firewall. The modern buildings have been the gifts of Rev. Camille Seux who has spent many years as missionary to the San Juan Indians. The beautiful chapel of Our Lady of Lourdes, opposite the old church, constructed of red volcanic rock with the chancel in the form of a grotto, was dedicated June 19, 1890. Later "Padre Camilo," as he is known, presented the Pueblo with a statue of the Virgin Mary, which is life size, that stands in the plaza between the chapel and the church. It is a beautiful piece of French sculpturing, standing on a pedestal about 12 feet in height. As a third gift he provided a parish house to take the place of the decaying friary; and lastly, he replaced the old mission with a large church in modern style.

As the Spanish settlement of San Gabriel was close to San Juan it is probable that between 1598 and 1609 the Pueblo was served by the friar stationed at San Gabriel. It is known that there was no mission church in 1617. Benavides stated in 1629 that there were eight churches among the Tewa Indians. One of these probably was at San Juan. In the days before the Pueblo Revolt San Juan was a *visita* of San Ildefonso. The old mission church that lasted until recent times was constructed after 1680. San Juan played a leading part in the rebellion, the leader Popé having started the plans for the revolt in that Pueblo after the punishment of some of the chief men of the Tewa Pueblos in 1675. When De Vargas appeared before the village October 2, 1692, the Indians agreed to submit to Spanish authority. In the summer of 1696 they joined with other Tewa Indians and although they later feigned peace De Vargas made war upon them resulting in their complete defeat October 26, 1696.

SANTA CLARA PUEBLO

The Pueblo of Santa Clara is situated three miles south of Española, directly south of the mouth of the Santa Clara Creek and a short distance from the west bank of the Rio Grande. The altitude is about 5,500 feet. Ruins of Santa Clara and Chupadero creeks on the west and of Santa Cruz Creek on the east are claimed by the Tewa Indians of Santa Clara.

The Indians name for the pueblo is *Kapo*, the meaning of which is unknown. The Picuris (Tiwa) call it *Haiphaha;* the Isleta (Tiwa) give it the name *Khaibhai;* the Jemez (Towa) speak of it as *Shapagii;* and the Navaho apply the name *Ana Sushi*, meaning "tribe like bears."

The earliest figure for the population of the Pueblo is 1680. In that year there were 300 people. It is not probable that the Indian population has ever been much greater than this number In almost all of the census reports the number of people is between 150 and 300 with the exception of 1788 and 1856 when the population was 452 and 600 respectively. The inclusion in the census of other than Indians probably accounts for these large numbers. The census of 1910 placed the population at 277.

Photo by Museum Staff.

GOVERNOR OF SANTA CLARA

The Santa Clara Indians have not only the grant of four square leagues but in addition a reservation set aside by the United States Government which consists of the valley of Santa Clara Creek, an area extending west from the western boundary of the Spanish grant for fifteen miles, being about five miles in width. The surveyor general for New Mexico made his investigation of the land claims of the Santa Clara Indians, July 16, 1856, finding no evidence in the form of documents making a specific grant to them. He reported that by custom they were entitled to one league measured in each direction from the church, that is four square leagues. The United States Congress confirmed the grant December 22, 1858, it was surveyed in 1859 for 17,368 acres and the patent issued by the United States Government in 1864. The monuments fixing the boundaries of both Santa Clara and San Ildefonso were ordered placed by the governor of New Mexico in 1736. On petition of Joseph de Riaño who had purchased lands lying along the Rio Grande between the two pueblos the boundaries of the same were definitely marked and although it left Riaño only eighty yards of land the governor decreed that the boundaries should not be changed. In 1733 a dispute arose between the Santa Clara Indians and claimants to the Santa Clara Valley. The matter was settled on the basis of use of the lands by the Spanish settlers for grazing only.

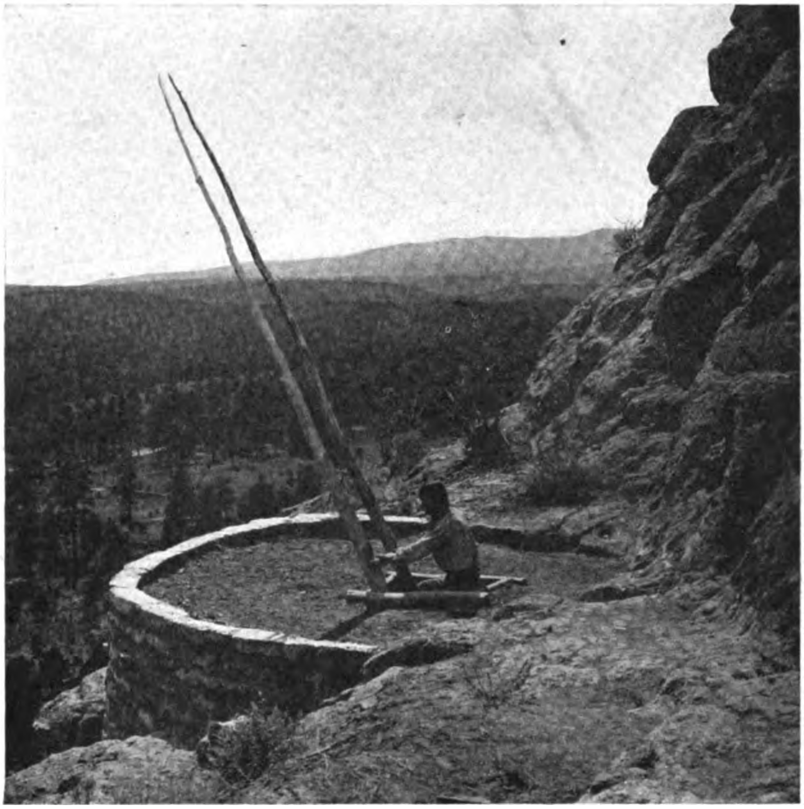


Photo by Museum Staff.

PREHISTORIC KIVA OF PUYE

Three areas of Pueblo ruins are associated with the modern Pueblo of Santa Clara: the first, the immediate vicinity of the present village; the second, the Santa Cruz Valley on the east side of the Rio Grande and three miles north of Santa Clara; the third, the upper valleys of Santa Clara and Chupadero creeks, which is the region of the northern ruins of the Pajarito Plateau. Two former Pueblos, now in ruins, lie one to the northwest and the other to the northeast of the present town, being south of Santa Clara Creek. Both of these as well as the present village were called *Kapo*. The one to the northeast was probably the location of the church and friary built between 1622 and 1629. In the Santa Clara Valley there are three ruins. *Payombuu Onywinkeyi*, meaning "Pueblo ruin of winnowing basket corner," is located on the north bank of Santa Cruz Creek about one mile from its mouth. *Tewige Onywinkeyi*, meaning "Pueblo ruin below cottonwood gap," is directly south of the above ruin at a distance of less than a mile. On the south bank of Santa Cruz Creek, some four miles from its mouth, is the third ruin of this group known as *Tsanwari Onywinkeyi* meaning "Pueblo ruin of the wide white gap." Only low mounds and potsherds mark the location. It was there that the Tano were located between 1681 and 1694. The Santa Clara ruins of the Pajorito Plateau lie ten miles west of the Rio Grande. They extend north and south about five miles from Santa Clara Creek to Chupadero Creek. In this area there are numerous cliff dwellings, and small houses in addition to seven pueblo ruins. Two of these lie north of Santa Clara Creek, namely: *Shupinnan Onywinkeyi*, meaning "Pueblo ruin of the height at rabbit brush corner"; south of the above and between Santa Clara Creek and Puyé Arroyo are *Quansapoakonnu Onywinkeyi*, meaning "Pueblo ruin of the plain of the soft rat excrement," and *Puyé Onywinkeyi*, meaning "Pueblo ruin where the rabbits assemble." Puyé is the ruin of a very large Pueblo which consisted of the Pueblo proper on the mesa and cliff dwellings along the slope bordering the north side of Puyé Creek, the largest southern branch of Santa Clara Creek. The Pueblo was a great quadrangular structure with an outlet at the southeastern corner from the court or hollow square. Round subterranean kivas are found both inside and outside of the central court. A part of this great pueblo has been excavated. Along the south side of the mesa are a larger number of cliff dwellings divided into two groups by a horizontal ledge. Two round kivas accompanied these cliff dwellings having been excavated out of the talus slope. Three Pueblo ruins are located along the upper Chupadero Creek. *Tssipiwi Onywinkeyi*, meaning "Pueblo ruin at gap where flaking stones come out of the ground," is north of Arroyo del Ojo de Agua, the northern branch of Chupadero Creek, about two miles west of Puyé. Along the south slope of the mesa are extensive cliff dwellings. Compared to Puyé it was small. *Nabahu Onywinkeyi*, meaning

"Pueblo ruin of the arroyo of cultivatable fields," is situated between Arroyo de Ojo de Agua and Nabahu Arroyo, upper branches of Chupadero Creek. The mound of rocks 120 by 160 feet is all that remains of the former Pueblo that has given its name to the better known Navaho. *Pininikanwi Onywinkeyi*, meaning "Pueblo ruin at dwarf corn meal gap," is along the south side of Nabahu about one mile above its junction with the Arroyo del Ojo de Agua. It was built in the form of a quadrangle, 210 by 150 feet, with an opening to the east. The kiva was in the southeastern corner of the enclosed court. Puyé stands in the center of this group of pueblo ruins extending from the Santa Clara to the Chupadero Valley.

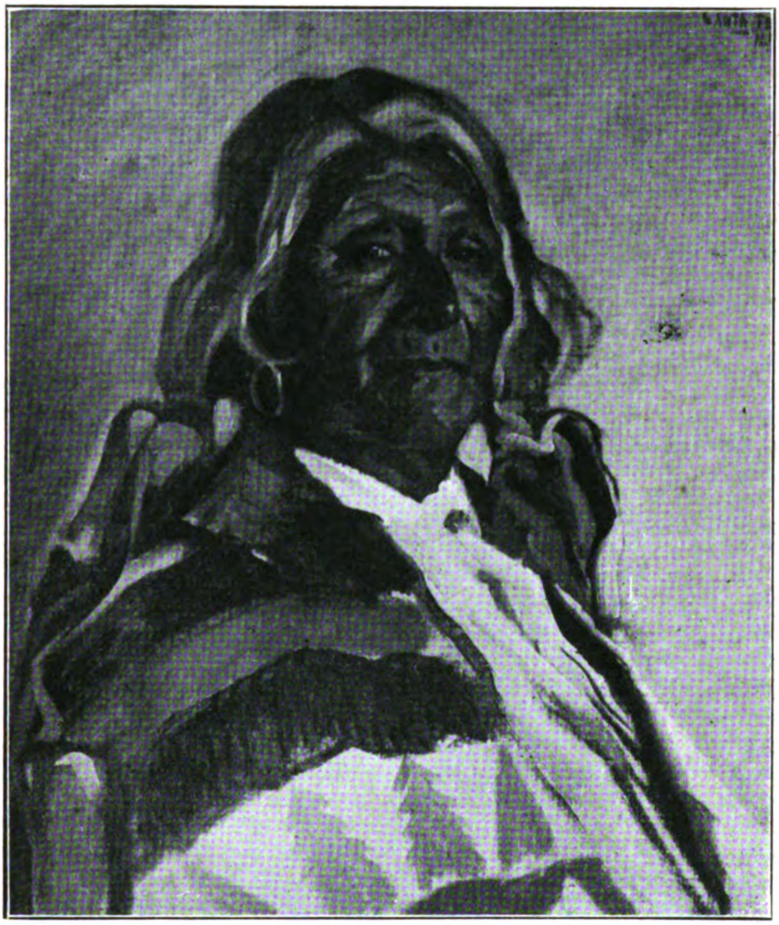


Photo by Museum Staff.

SANTIAGO NARANJO OF SANTA CLARA—PAINTING BY JULIUS ROLSHOVEN

The ruined Church of the Santa Clara Pueblo that stands northeast of the plaza around which the present houses are grouped was built in 1761. A mound marking the earlier church is a short distance to the southeast. The church, built in 1761, was one of the largest and a very good example of the type of structures. The usual width of twenty-five feet controlled by the length of the vigas characterized the edifice. It was exceptionally long, being 135 feet, the nave 105 feet, the transepts eighteen feet in width and the chancel twelve feet in depth. The front of the building consisted of a very large entrance eight feet wide and ten feet high, and a fire wall with an opening for a bell. The great doors were only opened on special occasions there being a small one 3 by 6 feet cut in one of the large panelled doors. The firewall was run up about ten feet in the center with the opening for the bell and balanced by high points of wall on the corners. In recent times a new pitched roof was constructed to replace the old flat viga roof, but this was destroyed wrecking the building beyond repair.

The first mission church was built between 1622 and 1629. During the following period and prior to the Pueblo Revolt the Indians moved to the Puyé Mesa on account of attacks from the Navaho but were induced by the Spaniards to return to their village. At the time of the Revolt the Pueblo was a *visita* of San Ildefonso. During the uprising a number of Spanish people living in the neighborhood of the village were killed. A century later, 1782, there was a resident friar at Santa Clara and San Ildefonso was its *visita.*

SAN ILDEFONSO

The Pueblo of San Ildefonso is about twenty miles due northwest of Santa Fe, on the east bank of the Rio Grande, just north of the mouth of Pojoaque Creek, at an altitude of 5,457 feet.

The Tewa name for the Pueblo is *Poqwoge,* meaning "where the water cuts down through." In the Taos (Tiwa) language the name for the village is *Pahwalita,* meaning "where the river enters the canyon." The Jemez (Towa) call it *Pashugii;* the Cochiti give it the name *Pakwete;* and the Navaho call it *Tse Tu Kinne,* which is said to mean "houses between the rocks."

The population of the village in 1680 was given as 800. A century later, 1760, the number of people had declined to 484. In the nineteenth century the figure has varied between 300 and 100. In 1910 the Pueblo consisted of 123 persons.

When the surveyor general of New Mexico made the investigations of the claims to lands of the Pueblo Indians, he found that the San Ildefonso Pueblo claimed four square leagues. (A reference to the fixing of the boundaries of this grant in 1736 has been made under the discussion of the land claim of the Santa Clara Pueblo.) The Indians claimed that they had had papers in the past, but that these had been taken to Santa Fe to be registered and that the documents had never been returned.

The surveyor general reported favorably on the claim and the United States Congress confirmed the grant December 22, 1858. In the following year a survey was made which fixed the land claim at 17,292 acres. The patent for these lands was issued by the United States Land Office in 1864. In 1704 and again in 1763 land disputes between Spanish claimants to grants that conflicted with the land claims of the San Ildefonso Indians resulted in judicial proceedings which in both cases were decided in favor of the Indians; that is, the governor ordered that the land rights of the Pueblo must be respected and that legally any grants conflicting with their rights were not valid.

Photo by Museum Staff.

CRESCENCIO, MASTER ARTIST OF SAN ILDEFONSO

Ruins on the east side of the Rio Grande within three miles of the pueblo, including the Black Mesa, are claimed by the San Ildefonso Indians. On the west side of the Rio Grande the ruins of the southern part of the Pajarito Plateau, between Chupadero Creek and Frijoles Canyon, are also claimed by this Pueblo.

References are made in the beliefs of the Indians to the Black Mesa, two miles north of San Ildefonso, on which is located a shrine. The shrine is still in use, offerings being found there. Formerly dances were held on occasions on the Black Mesa. One mile north of the Black Mesa is *Quapige Onywinkeyi,* meaning "Pueblo ruin of the red house wall." One-half mile east of the Pueblo is *Tamba Onywinkeyi,* meaning "live belt Pueblo ruin." Only a mound of adobe remains of this ruin, which may have been at one time the home of San Ildefonso Indians. Across from San Ildefonso, on the west bank of the Rio Grande, is *Perage Onywinkeyi,* meaning "Pueblo ruin down at the place of a species of Kangaroo Rats." There is some question as to whether this Pueblo was still inhabited at the time of the coming of the Spaniards. It is believed that it was built when the people were forced to desert the pueblos that are now in ruins located to the west on the Pajarito Plateau. Ten miles up Guaje Creek on the north bank is a Pueblo ruin, as large as Otowi ruin, which has not been named. On the north side of Alamo Canyon, a southern branch of Guaje Creek, about six miles west of the Rio Grande, is *Potsuwi Onywinkeyi,* meaning "Pueblo ruin at the gap where the water sinks." This Pueblo is better known under the name Otowi. Various types of cliff dwellings are found along the slope of the mesa, often in two terraces. The conical rock cliff dwellings are about one-half mile above the principal ruin. The plan of the main pueblo is quite different from others of the region in that it consists of five large buildings. These formed courts by connecting walls, with the exception of the eastern structure. It has been estimated that the five houses had 450 rooms on the ground floor, with from two to four stories probably built in terraces. Kivas are found within the buildings, in the courts and on the outside of the enclosed places. Directly south of Potsuwi and south of Alamo Canyon are two Pueblos for which Tewa names have not been obtained. On the south side of Alamo Canyon, about five miles west from the Rio Grande, are two Pueblo ruins side by side. These are *Sankewinuge Onywinkeyi,* meaning "Pueblo ruin below the gap of the sharp round cactus," and *Sankewikwaye Onywinkeyi,* meaning "Pueblo ruin above the gap of the sharp round cactus." The second of these is an important ruin just to the south of the first one. The location of Tsankawi, as it is more commonly known, is one that made defense a comparatively easy matter, as it is high above the surrounding country, which is very rugged. Cliff dwellings covered the southern slope of the mesa on which it is located. The Pueblo was made up of four houses grouped around a large court and had about 200 rooms on the ground floor. It is believed that there were ten kivas. South of Alamo Canyon there are two ruined pueblos, one in Sandia Canyon, about three miles from the Rio Grande, the other in Pajarito Canyon, about five miles from the Rio Grande. *Nabawi Onywinkeyi,* meaning "pitfall gap Pueblo ruin," is on the south side of Sandia Canyon. The country from the Sandia south to Frijoles Canyon is known as the Mesa del Pajarito, which is in appearance comparatively level, though it is cut by a number of deep canyons. In addition to the main ruin, there are cliff dwellings along the mesa slope and small house ruins on the level mesa. The plan of the pueblo is very irregular; one large building stands apart from the principal ruin, which is built around two sides of a court with an arm of rooms forming a secondary plaza to the west. The name has been given from the game trap which is located about 300 yards to the west of the ruin. This trap was excavated out of the rock to a depth of fifteen feet, the mouth being six feet by four. The Pueblo ruin in Pajarito Canyon is *Tsirege Onywinkeyi*, meaning "Pueblo ruin of the bird place." This is judged to be one of the very largest of the Pueblo ruins, consisting of some 600 ground floor rooms arranged about three sides of a court, with a small secondary court to the west completely surrounded by rooms. Ten circular subterranean kivas are either in the plazas or outside of the buildings. A large number of Pueblo-like cliff dwelling ruins exist along the side of the mesa. A small reservoir a short distance north of the main ruin makes up part of the ancient town, which, it is believed, was the last of the Pajarito Plateau Pueblos to be abandoned. On the face of the cliff near the Pueblo ruin there is a famous petroglyph pecked with a stone tool into the rock representing the "plumed serpent."

Oñate named the pueblo San Ildefonso in 1598, and at that time it was included within the district of Friar Cristóbal de Salazar for missionary work. A mission was established as early as 1617, and a church and friary existed in 1630. At the time of the Pueblo Revolt in 1680 two missionaries were stationed at the Pueblo, Friar Antonio de Sanchez de Pro and Friar Luis de Morales, who also had charge of San Juan and Santa Clara as *visitas*. These missionaries were killed at the time of the Revolt and the church and friary were destroyed. The Pueblo accepted the terms offered by De Vargas when he appeared before the village in the course of the Reconquest, October 1, 1692. However, when the Spanish settlers were brought from El Paso the following year, San Ildefonso refused to submit, and although the Indians were besieged in the fall of 1693 and again in the spring of 1694, they remained unconquered. In the uprising in the summer of 1696 the Indians burned the church and friary, June 4th, and killed the two missionaries, Friar Francisco Corbera and Friar Antonio Moreno. A new church was erected between 1717 and 1722 at the expense of the governor, Antonio Valverde y Cosio. The mission church became a ruin by 1900. The fact that the Pueblo was a *visita* of Santa Clara in 1782 showed that it had declined in importance as a mission station.

There is an interesting story connected with the change in the location of the Pueblo. It is said that prior to 1696 the village was south of its present location. The bad people, the witches, wanted to move it to the north, but this was contrary to beliefs which held that the Pueblo must always move to the south. It was decided to determine the direction of the moving of the Pueblo by playing a game. In this game the bad people won, the village was moved northward and all of the ills of the Pueblo have been due to this violation of the rule to always move southward.

POJOAQUE, JACONA, AND CUYAMUNQUE

The Pueblo of Pojoaque was located sixteen miles northwest of Santa Fe, south of the Pojoaque River and one-half mile east of the mouth of Tesuque Creek, at an altitude of 5,750 feet.

The Tewa name for Pojoaque is *Posunywange*, meaning "drink water place." The Picuris (Tiwa) call it *Asona*, and the Isleta (Tiwa) know it as *Pasuiap*. Some of the other pueblos use forms that are adaptations from the Spanish form Pojoaque.

In 1760 the population was given as ninety-nine, and in 1805 as 100. By 1850 the pueblo had declined in numbers to forty-eight, and the number has continued to fall since that time, the pueblo becoming extinct as an organized community in 1900. The census of 1910 gave the number of Pojoaque Indians as sixteen.

The land controlled by this small group of Indians was almost four square leagues lying directly east of the San Ildefonso grant. When the investigation of the land claim was made by the United States surveyor general for New Mexico, June 28, 1856, the Indians held that the title deed had been presented in a suit and that it had not been returned. The surveyor general reported favorably on the claim and the United States Congress confirmed the grant, December 28, 1858. The survey was made in 1859 for 13,520 acres and the patent issued by the United States Land Office in 1864.

There are three ruins in the vicinity of Pojoaque. *Teke Onywinkeyi*, meaning "cottonwood bud pueblo ruin," is located about a quarter of a mile east of the pueblo. Only a mound of adobe 138 yards from east to west and 131 yards from north to south marks the location of this former village. *Sakonan* (Jacona) *Onywinkeyi*, meaning "pueblo ruin by the tobacco barranca," is one mile west of Pojoaque and three-quarters of a mile south of Pojoaque Creek. The ruins consist of an adobe mound about 200 yards long. It was occupied until the period 1680-1696, but shortly after that time the pueblo was deserted and the lands were granted to Ignacio de Roybal in 1702. All that is known of the people is the tradition that they went to live at other Tewa villages. *Kuyemuge* (Cuyamunque) *Onywinkeyi*, meaning "pueblo ruin where they threw down the stones," is three miles south of Pojoaque and one-quarter of a mile west of Tesuque Creek. Mounds of adobe are all that remain of the former pueblo that was deserted about 1696. In 1699 the site was granted to Alonso Rael de Aguilar, and later in 1731 regranted to Bernardino de Sena.

The pueblos of Jacona, Cuyamunque, and Pojoaque took part in the Pueblo Revolt of 1680 and all were abandoned by 1696. Later, in the year 1706, Governor Cuerbo y Valdés reestablished the pueblo of Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe de Pojoaque with a settlement of five families. In 1749 Pojoaque was a visita of Nambé, while in 1782 there was a resident friar at the pueblo with Nambé and Tesuque as *visitas*. The old church and a few houses are all that remain of the former pueblo, which has become a settlement of people of Mexican descent.

TESUQUE PUEBLO

The Pueblo of Tesuque is situated eight miles north of Santa Fe, about two miles south of the junction of Tesuque Creek and Tesuque Arroyo, one mile west of the former and one mile east of the latter.

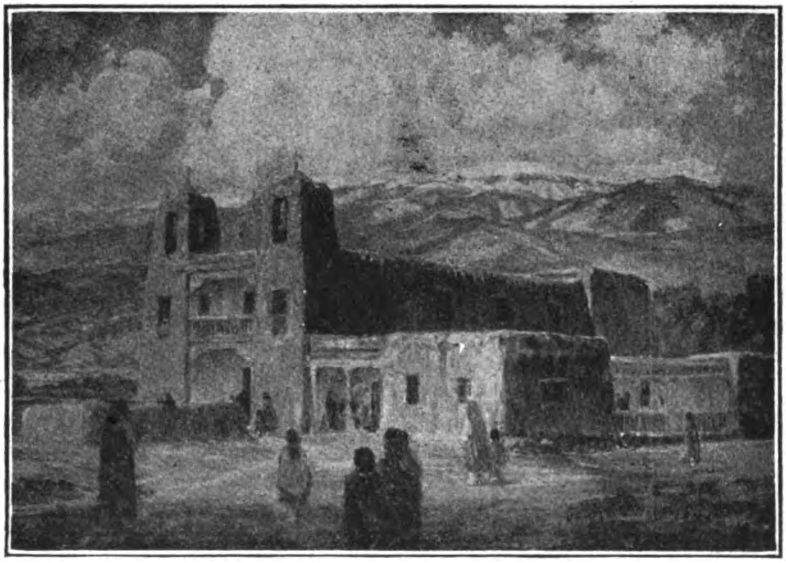


Photo by State Museum.

TESUQUE CHURCH IN 1860—PAINTING BY CARLOS VIERRA

The population in 1680 was 200. In 1760 it was given as 232, and in 1797 the number was placed at 155. During the nineteenth century the figure has varied from 150 to eighty. In 1910 the total number of inhabitants was seventy-seven.

The Tewa name for the Pueblo is *Tatunynge Onywi,* meaning "pueblo down at the dry spotted place." The Taos (Tiwa) give it the name *Tutsuiba;* the Isleta (Tiwa) call it *Tucheaap;* the

Jemez (Towa) know it as *Tsota;* and the Cochiti (Keres) as *Tyutsuko.*

The claim of the pueblo to four square leagues of land was investigated by the United States surveyor general for New Mexico June 14, 1856. In his report he recommended that the grant be confirmed, which the United States Congress proceeded to do December 22, 1858. In order to prevent disputes, the Government ordered a survey, which was made in 1859. In 1864 the patent for the land was issued to the Pueblo.

Prior to the Pueblo Revolt the mission was known as San Lorenzo de Tesuque, but after that event the name was changed to San Diego. It is probable that a mission existed at the Pueblo in the days of Benavides, although it is not certain. Tesuque played a leading part in the Revolt, it being from there that the messengers were sent out to inform the other pueblos that the Indian plot to drive out the Spaniards had been discovered. On the night of August 9, 1680, Cristóbal de Herrera was killed, and the next morning Friar Juan Bautista Pio met the same fate.

NAMBE' PUEBLO

The pueblo of Nambé is located on Nambé Creek, an upper branch of Pojoaque Creek, in the southern part of the Santa Fe Mountains, fifteen miles due north of Santa Fe, at an altitude of 6,045 feet.

The Tewa name of the pueblo is *Nambé Onywi,* meaning "Pueblo of the roundish earth." The names applied by the other pueblos are variations of the Tewa name. The Picuris (Tiwa) call it *Nammolona;* the Isleta (Tiwa) give it the name *Namburuap;* the Jemez (Towa) use the name *Nambee* and Acoma (Keres) call it *Nomee.* The Hopi name *Towivee Tewa,* meaning "Tewa near the mountains" is an exception to the above statement.

The population of the pueblo in 1680 was 600. In 1760 it was given as 204. The figures show a fluctuation in number between 200 and 100 down to 1860. Since that time the number has been less than 100. The census of 1910 gave the population as eighty-eight.

When the United States surveyor general for New Mexico investigated the land claim of the pueblo September 29, 1856, the Indians stated that they had had title papers but in a land dispute the documents had been submitted to the governor of the province and that they had not been returned. The surveyor general reported the claim favorably, the United States Congress confirmed the grant December 22, 1858 and in the following year the lands were surveyed for 13,586 acres, the patent for which was issued by the United States Land Office in 1864. Later an additional reservation was set aside for the Nambé Indians consisting of lands to the east of the original grant amounting to about 10,000 acres.

There are a number of ruins about five miles to the southeast and about the same distance to the northeast of the Pueblo. *Punywankwaye Onywinkeyi,* meaning "buttocks thorn height Pueblo ruin" is an ancient adobe Pueblo ruin on the left bank of Nambé Creek about two miles in a southeastern direction above the Pueblo of Nambé. Three miles farther up the creek and in the same direction there are three ruins, namely: *Kekwaye Onywinkeyi,* meaning "Pueblo ruin of the sharply pointed height," *Agawonu Onywinkeyi,* meaning "Pueblo ruin where the olive shells are hanging down," and *Kanawi Onywinkeyi,* meaning "Pueblo ruin of a kind of unidentified bird." All that is known of these Pueblos is related by the Nambé Indians who say that in the time before the coming of the Europeans their ancestors built and occupied these pueblos. In the upper valley of Santa Cruz Creek there are four ruins south of Cundayó on Cundayó Creek which is a mile southeast of the junction of Santa Cruz and Chiquito creeks. *Kumdiyo Onywinkeyi,* the meaning of which is unknown, is a large adobe pueblo ruin a short distance west of the town of Cundayó. It is claimed as an ancestral home by the Nambé Indians. Panchuela Creek joins Cundayó Creek one-half mile south of the town of Cundayó. Within a distance of three miles there are three Pueblos along the banks of Panchuela Creek the first one on the east bank and the others farther upstream on the west bank. *Pibiri Onywinkeyi;* "Pueblo ruin of the little red mound," the second a nameless ruin, the third *Nambe Onywinkeyi,* meaning "Pueblo ruin of roundish earth" which is Old Nambé Only adobe mounds remain marking the sites of these former pueblos. The pottery found about Pibiri is considered very archaic.

As Nambé was an important Pueblo in the seventeenth century it is probable that one of the eight missions that existed among the Tewa pueblos, at the time Benavides wrote in 1630, was at this village. Friar Tomas de Torres was the resident missionary for the mission of San Francisco de Nambé with Cuyamunque and Jacona as *visitas* at the time of the Revolt in 1680. It was August 10th of that year that Friar Tomas was killed and the church destroyed. In the uprising of June 4, 1696, the Nambé missionary Friar Antonio Moreno was burned to death when the Indians set fire to the church at San Ildefonso where the friar was visiting.

The new church of Nambé was built at the expense of the Governor Juan Domingo de Bustamante in 1729. This fact was inscribed on the first viga from the rear of the structure. This church which was 100 feet in length and twenty-five in width would probably be standing today had not an attempt been made to replace the old roof with one of a modern type. On the right of the entrance which was closed by massive doors was a large picture of Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe with four others grouped about it. The chancel adornments were native productions and not well executed. To the left of a crude altar piece was a picture of Saint Francis being crowned by an angel. In front of the church was a large enclosure, the *campo santo,* and to the side a friary adjoining the chancel.

CHAPTER IV

THE HISTORIC AND PREHISTORIC PUEBLOS
(Continued)

RUINS OF SANTA FE, GALISTEO AND SAN PEDRO VALLEYS

The ruins of these three valleys occupy the area between Santa Fe and the northern end of the Sandia Mountains; the rivers running from the Pecos highland to the Rio Grande. Santa Fe Creek enters the Rio Grande near Cochiti Pueblo; Galisteo Creek, near Santo Domingo Pueblo; and San Pedro Creek, in the vicinity of San Felipe Pueblo. Within a radius of twenty miles from the town of Cerrillos there are probably more than thirty ruins the most important of which are in the Galisteo Valley. The altitude at Cerrillos is 5,684 feet. The principal Indians that occupied these pueblos were Tano, a group closely related in language to the Tewa. The archæological remains show a close relation in mode of life to the Pajaritan Culture.

In the Santa Fe Valley there are some ten ruins almost all of which have no Tewa names. Three of these ruins at the time of the founding of Santa Fe marked the site as formerly an important Indian settlement. One of these occupied the site of Old Fort Marcy, another that of the Palace of the Governors, and the third that of the Church of San Miguel. Remains of foundation walls led to the opinion that the principal Pueblo in the last days of occupation of the locality by the Indians was on the site of Old Fort Marcy, while the Pueblo where the Palace now stands was in ruins, and across the river at San Miguel there were only some outlying buildings or possibly a small Pueblo. Two Pueblo ruins are found at Agua Fria, three miles southwest of Santa Fe, one on the left bank of Santa Fe Creek on the site of Agua Fria, the other on the right bank opposite the settlement.

About five miles south of Santa Fe on the upper Arroyo Hondo, a southern branch of Santa Fe Creek, there are two pueblo ruins, about one mile apart on opposite sides of the canyon. The one on the right bank was the larger of the two, the mound having an outside measurement of 505 feet. It may have housed 700 persons. Stone implements, charred corn, bones, and all types of pottery except incised and glazed wares were found about the ruin. Cienega, which is believed to have been one of the five historic Pueblos occupied until the end of the seventeenth century, is a pueblo ruin on the left bank of Arroyo Hondo, also called Cienega Creek, two miles above the junction with Santa Fe Creek. It is twelve miles southwest of Santa Fe. All that is known of the pueblo is to the effect that it was abandoned after the Pueblo Revolt of 1680 and that De Vargas attempted to reestablish it without marked success. It is believed that it was one of the five Tano Pueblos mentioned by Benavides as existing in 1630. The last important ruin of the Santa Fe Valley is five miles below the junction of Santa Fe Creek and Arroyo Hondo and five miles from the mouth of Santa Fe Creek on the south side of the said creek. The ruin is known by the name Tzenatay, also Bajada, and Pueblo Quemado. Low mounds, potsherds and stone implements mark the location. The pueblo was constructed of volcanic rock, probably three stories high and fairly large possibly furnishing quarters for 500 Indians. It may have been occupied at the time of the establishing of Spanish settlements in New Mexico, 1598.

Of the nine ruined Pueblos in the Galisteo Valley two are on the north side of the valley and seven on the south side in the Galisteo Basin. These ruins form one of the most important areas of Pueblo ruins in New Mexico. The two Pueblos on the north side of the valley are Peñas Negras and San Marcos. The Pueblo ruin of Peñas Negras is three miles northwest of Glorieta and eight miles southeast of Santa Fe. This is a small ruin. San Marcos is fifteen miles south of Santa Fe and three miles north of Cerrillos. The Tewa name for the latter is *Kunyan Onywinkeyi,* meaning "turquoise Pueblo ruin." The Keres name for San Marcos is *Yaatze.* The name San Marcos was given to the Pueblo in 1591 by Castaño de Sosa. It was evidently one of Benivides' five Tano pueblos in 1630. Its population in 1680 was given as 600. Cienega to the north and San Lázaro to the south were *visitas.* At the time of the revolt the missionary of the pueblo, Friar Manuel Tinoco was killed, the church was destroyed and the location permanently abandoned. These Indians after the revolt probably joined the Pueblos of Cochiti, Santo Domingo and San Felipe. When De Vargas visited the region in 1692 he found the Pueblo in ruins.

The seven ruins on the south side of the Galisteo Creek lie within the area known as Galisteo Basin which is fourteen miles from north to south and from five to eight miles from east to west. The seven pueblos are on the banks of arroyos that unite below the town of Galisteo to form Galisteo Creek. They may be divided into two groups, those occupied in historic times, namely: San Cristóbal, San Lázaro, and Galisteo, which with Cienega and San Marcos were the five Tano Pueblos of Benavides; and those that have not been inhabited since the coming of the Europeans, namely; Shé, Largo, Colorado, and Blanco.

The name San Cristóbal was first applied to a Pueblo six miles east of Galisteo and eight miles southeast of Lamy on San Cristóbal Arroyo by Castãno de Sosa in 1591. The Pueblo was inhabited and had a church in 1680. After the revolt these Indians settled along the lower Santa Cruz Valley between Santa Cruz and the Pueblo ruin of Tsanwari. They were dispossessed of their lands by De Vargas April 12, 1695, when he established Santa Cruz de Cañada, and in the following year they joined in the uprising in which they killed Friar José de Arbizu. Some of them joined the Tewa pueblos and some went to the Hopi country in Arizona. This ruined Pueblo has been partially excavated. The results show that there was a long period of occupation and that some of the buildings were much older than others. The ruins are on both sides of the arroyo, those on the south side being older than those on the north side where the church and the 925 rooms occupied in the historic period were located. The estimated number of ground floor rooms is placed at 1,645 surrounding eleven courts covering a ground space 1,300 by 2,000 feet. Only three round partly subterranean kivas were found, one on the south side and two on the north side of the arroyo, varying from 25 to 50 feet in diameter. The walls were made of thin slabs of stone laid in adobe. Near the main part of the ruin is the church 29 by 70 feet located on the north side and to the south of the Pueblo occupied in historic times. In front was a walled enclosure 54 by 65 feet, and to the side of the altar part of the church at the west was the friary which consisted of twenty rooms. The walls are three feet thick which are in marked contrast to the twelve-inch walls of the Pueblo ruins. To the north of the Pueblo there are rock shelters at the base of a cliff which is covered with pictographs. To the south are signs of two reservoirs. Along a branch arroyo extending south from San Cristóbal ruins have been noted for a distance of two miles.

The Galisteo pueblo ruin is five miles south of Lamy on Galisteo Arroyo, one mile and a half above the town of Galisteo, at an altitude of 6,074 feet. The Tewa name for the pueblo is *Tanuge Onywinkeyi*, meaning "down country place Pueblo ruin." It was first called San Lucas by Castaño de Sosa in 1591. Oñate in 1598 named it Santa Ana. This name was probably changed to Santa Cruz when the mission church was established about 1617. At the time of the Pueblo Revolt the population amounted to 800, including San Cristóbal, which was a *visita* of the Galisteo mission. When the Pueblo Revolt began the Indians, August 10, 1680, killed the custodian of the Franciscan missions, Friar Juan Bernal, Friar Juan Domingo de Vera, and the missionaries of San Marcos and Pecos as well as several Spanish settlers. The Galisteo Indians established themselves in Santa Fe after the retreat of the Spanish occupants, and remained until they were driven out by De Vargas. In 1706 Governor Cuerbo y Valdés re-established the Pueblo (renamed Santa Maria and later Nuestra Señora de los Remedios), with ninety Tano Indians but it is not certain that the new Pueblo was on the site of the earlier one. By 1749 it had grown to a settlement of 350 inhabitants but in the latter part of the eighteenth century the number declined due to epidemics of smallpox and raids of the Comanche Indians. The final desertion of the Pueblo took place in 1794 when the few remaining people moved to Santo Domingo where a few Tano Indians live at the present time. The Pueblo was built of adobe and for that reason very little remains of the former structures. It has not been possible to locate the site of the mission church. Marks of the foundations of twenty-six buildings, a total of 1640 rooms, have been found, but only six of these appear to be of any importance. The excavations proved that the site was one of a pre-European as well as a historic Pueblo.

The Pueblo ruin of San Lázaro is located six miles west of Galisteo and two miles south of Ortiz on both banks of Arroyo del Chorro. This is probably the largest ruin in the Galisteo basin. These Indians joined in the Pueblo Revolt and their pueblo was definitely abandoned during the period 1680-1692. They established themselves in the lower Santa Cruz valley and were involved in the uprisings between 1694 and 1696. The San Lázaro of the Santa Cruz Valley was abandoned between 1694 and 1697, the Indians being dispersed among the Tewa Pueblos and some of them moving to the Hopi Pueblo in Arizona. The historic ruins of the Pueblo and the church are on the east side of the arroyo, the site not having been occupied as at San Cristóbal by a prehistoric Pueblo. On the west bank of the arroyo ruins of a large prehistoric Pueblo exist. The total number of rooms that the foundations and debris about them would indicate has been fixed at 1941. The historic ruins consist of remains of community houses built of stone around a court and a small church to the east of these ruins. The remains of the church show that the structure was 28 by 64 feet with walls three feet thick. On the west side of the arroyo is the prehistoric Pueblo ruin part of which has been washed away by the flood water of the arroyo. The walls were built of adobe and stone there being some twenty-six buildings in all. The excavations have proved that the prehistoric and historic Pueblos are a part of the same culture as the other Pueblos of the Galisteo Basin.

The four prehistoric ruins of the Galisteo Basin lie in a line about five miles south of the line of San Cristóbal and San Marcos on the southern edge of the basin. Shé, Colorado, and Largo are five, seven, and eight miles, respectively, east of south of Galisteo, and Blanco is ten miles southwest from Galisteo.

The ruins of Shé occupy an area of 900 by 1,300 feet, the estimated number of rooms being 1,543. The buildings were constructed of small, thick, angular rocks. No bones of domestic animals or other objects of the historic period were discovered in the excavations which leads to the conclusion that it was deserted before the arrival of the Spaniards.

The Colorado ruin on the upper Jara Arroyo consists of the foundations and debris of 881 rooms. The communal buildings have been estimated at eleven enclosing four courts. The height of the standing walls vary from two and one-half to seven feet. Seven refuse heaps which were used as burial mounds have been located. On the east side of the Pueblo there is the ruin of a large reservoir which was used for the storage of water coming from the nearby hills during the heavy rains.

Largo is the smallest of this group of ruins. It is made up of six community houses of 489 ground floor rooms, strung out in three groups giving it the name of "long village." The absence of potsherds and large refuse heaps indicates that it was not so old as San Cristóbal Pueblo, and that it was not inhabited for a very long period.

Blanco Pueblo is on the southwestern border of the Galisteo Basin. The ruins lead to the belief that there were 1,450 ground floor rooms. There were sixteen buildings which enclosed six courts. One of the buildings has been partially washed away. The absence of large refuse heaps leads to the conclusion that the Pueblo was not occupied for a long period. Only two subterranean kivas located outside the courts have been discovered. Three reservoirs apparently formed the means by which the scarcity of water was overcome. In one of the ruins, which was excavated was found a small altar raised from the ground about six inches, with dimensions 17 by 25 inches. It was about the middle of the east wall of one of the rooms. A carved stone idol formed the chief feature of the altar. Grouped around the base of the stone slab were a number of objects; pottery, bone implements, smooth stones and pieces of petrified wood. This example of an altar is proof that this element of the religious practices of the Pueblo Indian is not a result of European influence.

In the San Pedro Valley there are two Pueblo ruins: the one at the very source of the arroyo; the other about half way between the source of the arroyo and its mouth at San Felipe. The upper Pueblo is called Paako, located on the south bank of the arroyo a short distance north of San Pedro Mountain. Only mounds, potsherds and stone utensils are found. It is believed that it may have been occupied as late as 1626, and abandoned not later than 1670. The walls were built of rubble and from the size of the mounds it is estimated that the buildings were two stories in height. Depressions showing three circular kivas are a part of the ruin. The other ruin of the valley is called Tunque which may be the Tewa name *Tunynge*, meaning "down at the basket." It is on the south bank of the San Pedro Arroyo at the northern end of the Sandia Mountains, about ten miles down stream from the Paako ruin and the same distance up the valley from San Felipe. The ruin is marked by low mounds of adobe with some rubble showing that the latter material was used for foundations. The size of the mounds cause one to believe that the buildings were two stories in height. Stone axes, metates, stone chisels and potsherds were found but no objects of European origin, and no bones of the domestic animals introduced by the Spaniards.

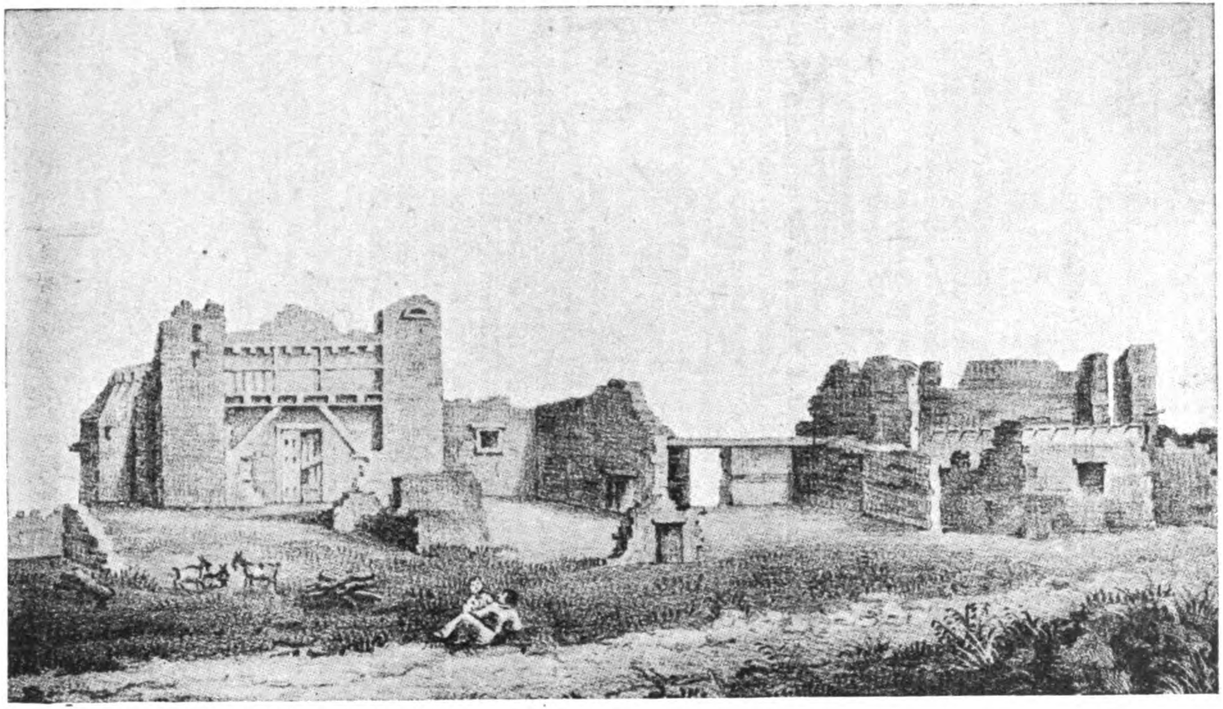
PECOS PUEBLO

The Pueblo of Pecos was located on the upper Pecos River eighteen miles southeast of Santa Fe and about four miles from Glorieta, at an altitude of 6,366 feet. It was on the eastern frontier of the Pueblo region and therefore received the first blow from the nomadic invading Apache and Comanche from the east.

The Pecos (Towa) called their Pueblo *Kakoran,* meaning "place down where the stone is on top." The Jemez (Towa) call it *Pakyula.* In the Tewa language it is known as *Tshunynge Onywinkeyi,* meaning "pueblo ruin down at the place of a bush (unidentified)." The Isleta (Tiwa) know the pueblo as *Hiokuok* and it is probable that the early Spanish name Cicuye was derived from this form. The name Pecos on the other hand seems to have come from the Keresan names. The Cochiti (Keresan) call it *Paeyokona,* the Santa Ana (Keresan) name is Peahho, and the Laguna (Keresan) speak of it as *Peakuni.*

At the time of the coming of the Spaniards the Pecos Pueblo was one of the most important and most powerful of the Indian towns, but from then on it steadily declined. In 1630 and 1680 the reported population was 2,000; in 1760 the number of persons of Pecos and Galisteo was put at 599; in 1797 the figure was 189; and in 1805 the census fixed the number at 104. In 1838 the few remaining inhabitants, to the number of seventeen, moved to the Jemez Pueblo. The disappearance of this once powerful community was due to the attacks of the Plains Indians and poisoned water supply.

Twenty years after the Indians had left their homes the United States confirmed to them a land claim of four square leagues covering territory on both sides of the Pecos River. This claim was allowed on the basis of a spurious Cruzate grant dated September 25, 1689. The United States Congress confirmed the grant December 22, 1858; the survey was made for 18,763 acres in 1859, and the patent was issued by the United States Land Office in 1864. This Pecos "league," as the grant was called, was measured June 30, 1815, and at the same time a grant of adjoining lands was made to Juan de Dios Peña. In 1825 it appears that a grant of land within the claim of the Pueblo was made to a Mexican citizen. In recent times the lands became the property of D. C. Collier, who gave the site of the Pueblo and mission to the School of American Research.



PECOS RUINS IN 1846. PAINTED BY L T. EMORY OF THE KEARNY EXPEDITION

Ruins of various types are found along the Pecos Valley in the southwestern part of San Miguel County for a distance of forty miles below the Pueblo of Pecos. Shelters in the sides of the valley, several community houses of 200 to 300 rooms, and smaller ones from ten to fifty rooms were probably occupied before the Indian population concentrated at the Pecos Pueblo prior to the coming of the Spaniards. Now, however, the buildings of this once flourishing pueblo of the strongest group of Indians in New Mexico, have largely been destroyed. Of the two large community houses consisting of 585 and 517 rooms, respectively, only the lower walls remain. Of the mission church, the walls are still standing and constitute the best preserved part of any of the buildings. From north to south the ruins of the Pecos Mesa consist of the ruins of Old North House which was the earliest village; then North House, a large terraced structure of four stories built in quandrangular form around a court, in which were the kivas; next is South House, a four-storied building in a single mass; and south of the latter is the mission church, the ruins of which have been repaired by placing concrete foundations under the walls. In the excavations carried on, pottery of all the Rio Grande periods have been found in the ruins. It was also discovered that the largest structure, North House, was built on the ruins of a former pueblo and it is probable that as many as four pueblos have been built on this site.

The Pecos Pueblo was visited by the earliest Spanish expeditions exploring in New Mexico and from then on remained in continual contact with the white man, either as a friend or as an enemy. Capt. Hernando de Alvarado, who had preceded the main part of the Coronado expedition, first visited the Pueblo in 1540. Castañeda, also a member of this expedition, gave a description of North House which agrees with archæological investigations of the site. The Pecos Pueblo in the sixteenth century had a fighting strength of 500 warriors and boasted that they could conquer any of their neighbors. Friar Luis de Escalona of the Coronado expedition remained in the country and was killed before the end of the year 1542. Espejo in 1583 explored the Pecos country estimating the population at 40,000, which was 37,000 more than the Pueblo contained. In 1590 Gaspar Castaño de Sosa had a fight with the Pueblo, but he did not remain in the country. The next Spaniard to visit it was Oñate, July 25, 1598, who named it Santiago. Friar Francisco de San Miguel was assigned to Pecos in 1598, but returned to Mexico in 1601. The church and friary were built about 1617. Friar Antonio de Ybargaray was stationed at the pueblo in 1636. When the Pueblo Revolt broke out in 1680 the mission at Pecos dedicated to Nuestra Señora de los Angeles de Porciúncula was in charge of Friar Fernando de Velasco who, having learned of the plans of the Indians to destroy the Spanish rule, started for Galisteo to warn the residents of that place.

Before the friar reached Galisteo he was overtaken and killed by the Indians who followed this event with the destruction of the church of their Pueblo. They then joined the Tano Indians of the Galisteo basin and marched against the Villa of Santa Fe. When De Vargas appeared before the Pueblo in September, 1692, the Pecos deserted their village, but in October agreed to live in peace. In the early part of the eighteenth century the Comanche continually attacked the place and the population rapidly decreased. Disease, due to the springs of the pueblo receiving the drainage from the church cemetery and the community burial ground, is believed to have been a contributing cause in bringing to an end the existence of this pueblo.

JEMEZ PUEBLO

The Pueblo of Jemez is on the bank of Jemez Creek twenty-five miles up the Jemez Valley from Bernalillo and five miles south of the junction of San Diego and Guadalupe canyons, at an altitude of 5,475 feet.

The names for the Jemez with the exception of the Tewa and the Navaho are derived from *Heminsh,* meaning "Jemez Indian." The pueblo is called by the Jemez (Towa) *Henwa, Towa,* and *Hentowa,* meaning "at the Pueblo of the Jemez." The Picuris (Tiwa) speak of the Pueblo by the name of *Hemima.* The Sia (Keresan) call it *Hemeshutesa.* The Pecos (Towa) called it *Henwa.* The Navaho (Athapascan) use the name *Maideshgizh,* meaning "coyote pass."

The population of Jemez in the seventeenth century was larger than at later times, although the figures given are probably too large. Benavides in 1630 gave the Pueblo 3,000, while Vetancur in 1680 stated that the Indians numbered 5,000. Since the middle of the eighteenth century the figure has varied between 250 and 500. The census of 1910 fixed the number at 499.

The Jemez Indians have two areas of equal size as common lands of the Pueblo, namely, a four square league grant and a reservation of about the same size as the grant which lies to the west of the Spanish land claim. The Pueblo stands in the center of the four square leagues which lie on either side of Jemez Creek. According to a forged document Governor Cruzate at El Paso made a grant September 20, 1689, of a league in each direction from the church to the Jemez Pueblo. Since the Jemez Indians were not in their present location until the beginning of the eighteenth century, the present grant could not have been made to them in 1689. As a matter of fact the document dates from a time after 1832, as was proved from internal evidence. Believing the document to be genuine the surveyor general for New Mexico made no investigation, but recommended that the Indians be granted four square leagues. The United States Congress confirmed the grant December 22, 1858, and the claim was surveyed for 17,510 acres in 1859. The patent for the tract was issued by the United States Land Office in 1864.

In the triangle of land formed by the Guadalupe Canyon and San Diego Canyon there are nine ruins between the junction and a point ten miles north of the same. The tenth Pueblo Ginunsewa, was on the east side of San Diego Canyon, at Jemez Springs. These may be divided into two groups: five in the vicinity of Jemez Springs and five in the neighborhood of the junction of the canyons. *Unshagii,* meaning "place where the one seeded juniper trees are" and *Naninshagii,* meaning "place where the cottowood trees are" are on the west side of the San Diego Canyon about two miles above Jemez Springs. *Kwanstiyukwa,* meaning "place of the rock-pine locust," is located about one-half mile west of Jemez Springs. The southern group of five ruins are scattered from the junction of Guadalupe Canyon and San Diego Canyon to a location six miles distant. *Amunshunkwa,* meaning "ant hill place," is six miles from the junction and about two miles from each canyon. *Hanakwa,* meaning "horned toad place," is about four miles north of the junction of the canyons along the west side of San Diego Canyon. *Kyatsokwa,* meaning "mountain sheep place," is three miles north of the junction along the east side of Guadalupe Canyon. *Astyalakyokwa,* the meaning of which is unknown, is about two miles north of the junction, the distance between the canyons at that place being less than two miles. *Patokwa,* the meaning of which is unknown, is at the junction of the two canyons.

The homes of the Jemez Indians prior to 1709 were at these pueblos which are now deserted. Castañeda in chronicling the Coronado expedition of 1541 stated that there were ten Pueblos in the Jemez country (which he called the province of Aguas Calientes), three of which were visited by Capt. Francisco Barrionuevo. Oñate reported in 1598 that there were eleven Jemez Pueblos. It therefore seems probable that the ten pueblos named above were inhabited during the sixteenth century. Friar Alonzo de Lugo was assigned to the Jemez Indians in 1598 when the Pueblos were divided into missionary provinces, but he may not have visited the region since he left New Mexico in 1601. Friar Gerónimo de Zárate Salmerón, known for his account of New Mexico before 1626, served at the Jemez Pueblos from 1618 until 1622 and it is probable that the original San Diego mission church at *Ginunsewa* (Jemez Springs), and the San José church at *Astyalakyokwa,* the second Pueblo north of the junction of Guadalupe and San Diego Canyons, were built during these years. About 1622 the Navaho attacked the Jemez Indians, who were forced from famine to desert their Pueblos. In that year Friar Martin de Arvide went to the Jemez country to resettle the Indians, and a few years later the second San Diego church at Jemez Springs was built, the ruins of which are still standing. Between 1630 and 1680 the

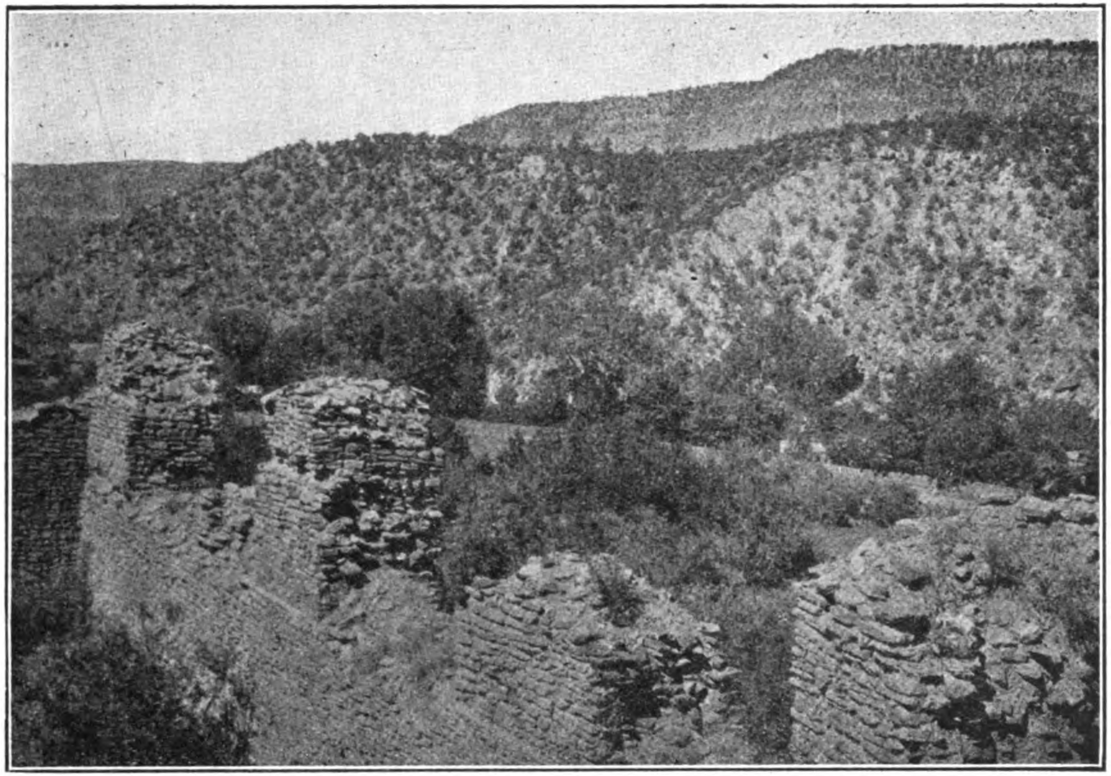


Photo by Museum Staff.

SAN DIEGO MISSION AT JEMEZ SPRINGS.

San José Mission was abandoned and the Mission of San Juan was established at *Patokwa,* the Pueblo at the junction of Guadalupe and San Diego canyons.

During the second part of the seventeenth century a number of attempts were made to drive the Spaniards from the Jemez country. Between 1643 and 1646 the Jemez were joined by the Navaho in an uprising against the Europeans, who withstood the attack and who attempted to prevent future plots by putting some twenty-nine Indians to death. In 1650 a larger number of Pueblos were enlisted in the work of driving out the intruder but again the Pueblos, which included Jemez, Cochiti, San Felipe, Isleta and Alameda, failed in their undertaking. When the general Revolt took place in 1680, the Jemez Indians joined and Friar Juan de Jesus was killed on August 10th at the mission of San Diego, while Friar Francisco Muñoz, probably of the San Juan mission, successfully made his escape. In the attempted reconquests of 1681 and 1688 the Indians fled to the hills but returned to their Pueblos after the Spaniards had disappeared. At the time of the Reconquest by De Vargas in 1692 the Jemez probably occupied the Pueblos at Jemez Springs and at the junction of Guadalupe and San Diego canyons. They submitted to De Vargas in 1692, but with the assistance of the Navaho made war in 1693 on the Sia, Santa Ana and San Felipe presumably as allies of the Spaniards. When they refused to cease these attacks De Vargas in July, 1694, made war upon them, killed eighty-four, took 361 prisoners and burned two Pueblos. In the latter part of the same year the Pueblo at Jemez Springs was re-occupied, but on June 4, 1694, they again revolted and killed Friar Francisco de Jesús Mariá Casañes. On June 29th the Jemez with their allies, the Zuñi, Acoma and Navaho, were defeated by De Vargas and thirty Indians were killed. At this time the Pueblos above the junction of the canyons were deserted never to be re-occupied, the Jemez Indians fleeing to the Navaho country. Some of the Jemez returned in 1703, but part of them were still among the Navaho in 1705 when a Spanish expedition was led against the Navaho by Roque de Madrid. The Jemez located at the present Jemez, or San Diego Pueblo, the name having been transferred from the older settlement, in the first decade of the eighteenth century and during the early years of the century suffered from a series of attacks from the Navaho and the Ute. These raids which had the effect of reducing the population of the Jemez Pueblo, occurred in 1709, 1714 and 1724. Epidemics in 1728 and 1780 further depleted the Pueblo. In 1782 Jemez was made a *visita* of Sia which proved that the Pueblo had greatly declined in importance as a mission field since 1680, when there were two missionaries in the Jemez country.

CHAPTER V

THE HISTORIC AND PREHISTORIC PUEBLOS
(Continued)

COCHITI PUEBLO

The Pueblo of Cochiti, at an altitude of 5,170 feet, is on the west side of the Rio Grande north of the mouth of Peralta Canyon, and north of Santa Fe Creek, which empties into the Rio Grande from the east. The Cochiti district contains a number of ruins. It is about fifteen miles square extending north and west from the Pueblo.

Almost all of the names for Cochiti are derived from the Cochiti Keresan name which is *Kotyete.* The Tewa call the Pueblo *Temage Onywi,* meaning "Keresan place Pueblo"; the Jemez (Towa) speak of it as *Kyatoge,* meaning "mountain-sheep home"; the Picuris (Tiwa) call it *Pathaita* and the Isleta (Tiwa) give it the name *Palab,* meaning "soapweed town." The Sia (Keresan) speak of it as *Kotshiti* and the Acoma (Keresan) call it *Kotuti.* The Navaho (Athapascan) give it the name *Tqoga.*

The population figures for the Pueblo vary between 200 and 700. In 1680 the village was said to contain 300 people. The number increased to 700 by the end of the eighteenth century while the census for 1805 gave the figure as 656. The smallest number recorded after the middle of the nineteenth century was 171 for 1860. In 1874 the population was given as 400 and the 1910 census gave 237 as the total number of inhabitants.

The grant of lands to the Pueblo by the United States Congress was made December 22, 1858, upon the recommendation of the surveyor general for New Mexico. In the following year the lands were surveyed for 24,256 acres. The patent for this tract was issued to the Pueblo by the United States Land Office in 1864. The Indians in this case received about 7,000 acres more than the customary four square leagues. One of the Cruzate grants September 25, 1689, was made in favor of the Cochiti Pueblo for a league in each direction from the church. Although this document was proved a forgery the customary grant to an Indian Pueblo was four square leagues. On what basis the additional lands were allowed the Pueblo is not known, but probably it was on the grounds of occupation and claim on the part of the Indians at the time of the report of the surveyor general in 1856. The La Majada and the Caja del Rio grants

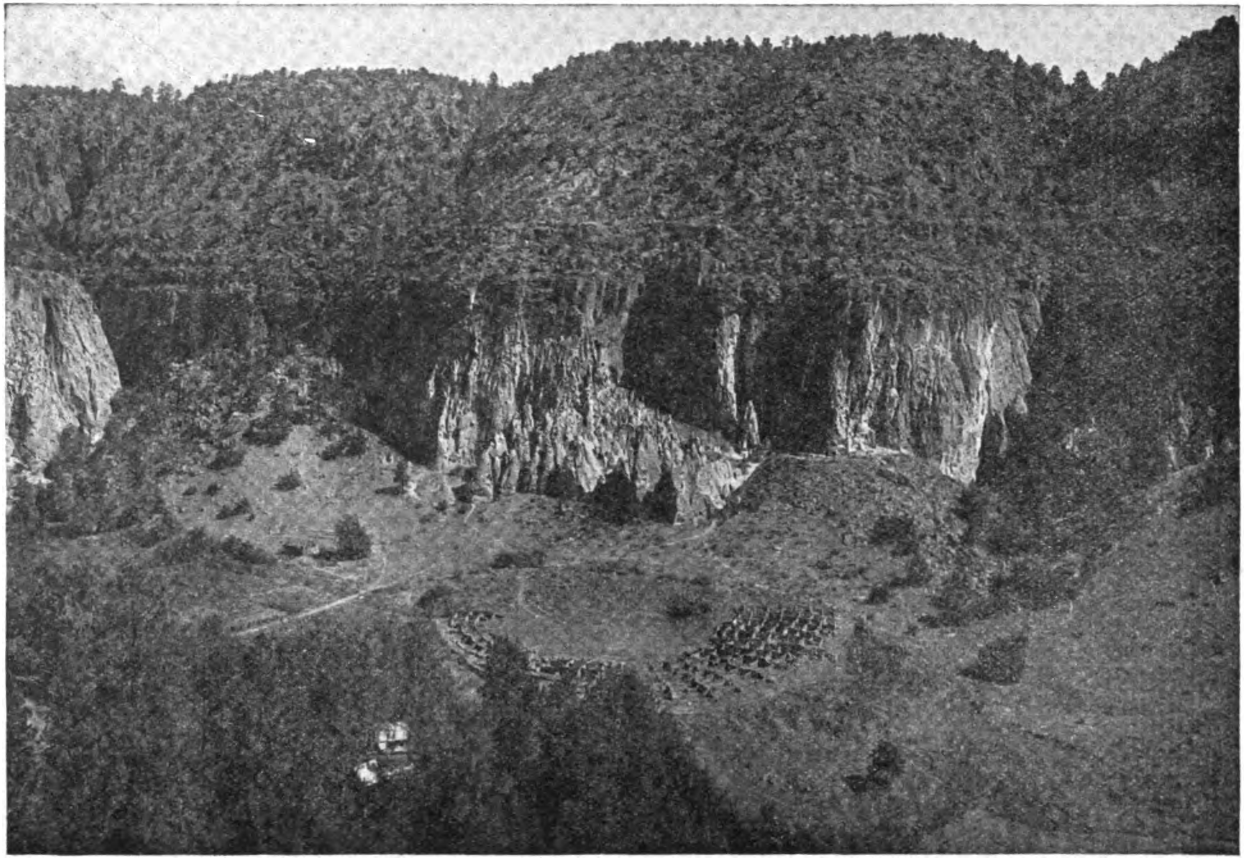


Photo by Museum Staff.

RITO DE LOS FRIJOLES

overlap each other and the Pueblo grant, on the east side of the Rio Grande. The town of Peña Blanca is located upon the Pueblo grant on the south side of Santa Fe Creek near its mouth.

The Indians of Cochiti claim that their present Pueblo is the seventh one that they have occupied in their migration southward from the Rito de los Frijoles, which is about fifteen miles north from the present location. A series of potreros, or tongues of land, formed by the meeting of canyons, characterize the Cochiti district between Frijoles and Cochiti canyons. *Puqwige Onywinkeyi* is the Tewa name for the Pueblo ruin in Frijoles Canyon on the north side of the creek, three miles west of the Rio Grande. It means "place where the bottoms of the pottery vessels were wiped thin." The Keres name *Tyuonyi,* meaning "place of agreement," has been applied to the ruin, but the present Cochiti Indians do not recognize the designation. On top of the mesa south of the canyon is a small pueblo ruin of about fifty rooms. In addition there are a number of small house ruins on the mesa, and along the north slope of the canyon are found cave dwellings of the various types. Bandelier's story, *The Delight Makers,* tells of the life that these people probably lived in this valley in prehistoric days and of their contests with the Tewa Indians living north of Frijoles Canyon and the Navaho of the west of Rito de los Frijoles.

The second home of the Cochiti is called *Mokatakowet Kamatseshoma,* in the Keres language meaning "pueblo ruin where the two mountain lions crouch." It is five miles west of the Frijoles Canyon ruins and six miles west of the Rio Grande, on a mesa called Potrero de las Vacas which lies between Hondo Canyon and Cuesta Colorada Canyon. The buildings of tufa seem to have been grouped around a single court with four kivas in the enclosure. About a mile north of this pueblo ruin is the remarkable shrine called *Mokatakowet Tsapaashoma,* meaning "ancient shrine where the mountain lions crouch." Two figures of mountain lions six feet in length and lying side by side have been carved out of the rock. The palisade of tufa slabs that surround these is twenty feet in circumference. The Tewa and Keres state that the lions were turned to stone when the great fire destroyed the world, while the Zuñi believe that these lions are the guardians of the place chosen by their culture hero as the home for himself and his followers.

The Cochiti hold that the site of their third village was near the Painted Cave, which is on the north side of Cuesta Colorada Canyon four miles west from the Rio Grande. The ruins in the vicinity of the Painted Cave are small and do not seem sufficient to have accommodated the Cochiti people. The cave is fifty-five feet across the face and forty-six feet in depth. In the cave and on the slope are remains of former dwellings. The paintings, in red ochre, represent clouds, lightning, the sun and other symbols of the Pueblo Indians.

Ryaetyo Kamatseshoma, meaning "cottontail rabbit Pueblo ruin," and which has been called Haatse, is the fourth ruin claimed by the Cochiti. It is on the mesa between Cuesta Colorada Canyon and Cochiti Canyon, eight miles west from the Rio Grande. It consisted of five buildings, grouped around a plaza, which probably would accommodate 200 people. Older types of potsherds are not common about the ruin. There are depressions that probably were kivas, outside the court, measuring twenty-three and forty-two feet in diameter.

The fifth ruin, which Bandelier called *Kuapa,* the Cochiti claim is *Kotyetekaihya Kamatseshoma,* meaning "Cochiti Canyon pueblo ruin." It is on the north side of Cochiti Canyon three miles west from the Rio Grande and one mile above the junction of Bland and Cochiti canyons. Instead of blocks of tufa this pueblo was built of rubble and adobe and has therefore disintegrated more than the pueblos on the mesas. Five circular kivas have been located as a part of the structure. One mile northeast of this ruin on the Potrero de los Idolos, which is between Cochiti Canyon and José Sanchez Canyon, and two miles west from the Rio Grande, is a shrine similar to the one seven miles north on the Potrero de las Vacas. This is known as the Stone Lions of Potrero de los Idolos. One of the figures has been destroyed by dynamite due to the belief that treasure was to be found underneath. The figures in size and position resemble those of Potrero de las Vacas.

The sixth Cochiti settlement is said to have been on Potrero Viejo which is the mesa formed by the junction of Bland and Cochiti canyons. A Pueblo was built at this location during the years intervening between the Pueblo Revolt and the Reconquest. The prehistoric ruin, which has not been located, and the historic ruin are both called *Kotyete Kamatseshoma,* meaning "old Cochiti Pueblo ruin." From the Potrero Viejo site the Cochiti moved to the location of the present Pueblo before the coming of the Spaniards and only temporarily re-occupied the Potrero Viejo after the Pueblo Revolt.

On the east side of the Rio Grande opposite Cochiti are six small ruins, three of which are north of Santa Fe Creek and three to the south of it. Those to the north are Pueblo del Enciero, Tashkatse, meaning "place of potsherds" and a nameless small ruin two miles east of the two named above. Two of the ruins south of the creek, two and three miles from the Rio Grande, respectively, are nameless. The third ruin, which is on the site of the town of Peña Blanca, is called *Kweshtae Kamatseshoma,* meaning "southern Pueblo ruin."

Before the coming of Oñate in 1598, the Cochiti had moved from Potrero Viejo to their present location. The first mission church was built about 1617. The Indians joined in the Pueblo Revolt in 1680. In 1681 they deserted their Pueblo, moving to Potrero Viejo in company with the inhabitants of Santo Domingo, San Felipe and San Marcos. These Indians seem to

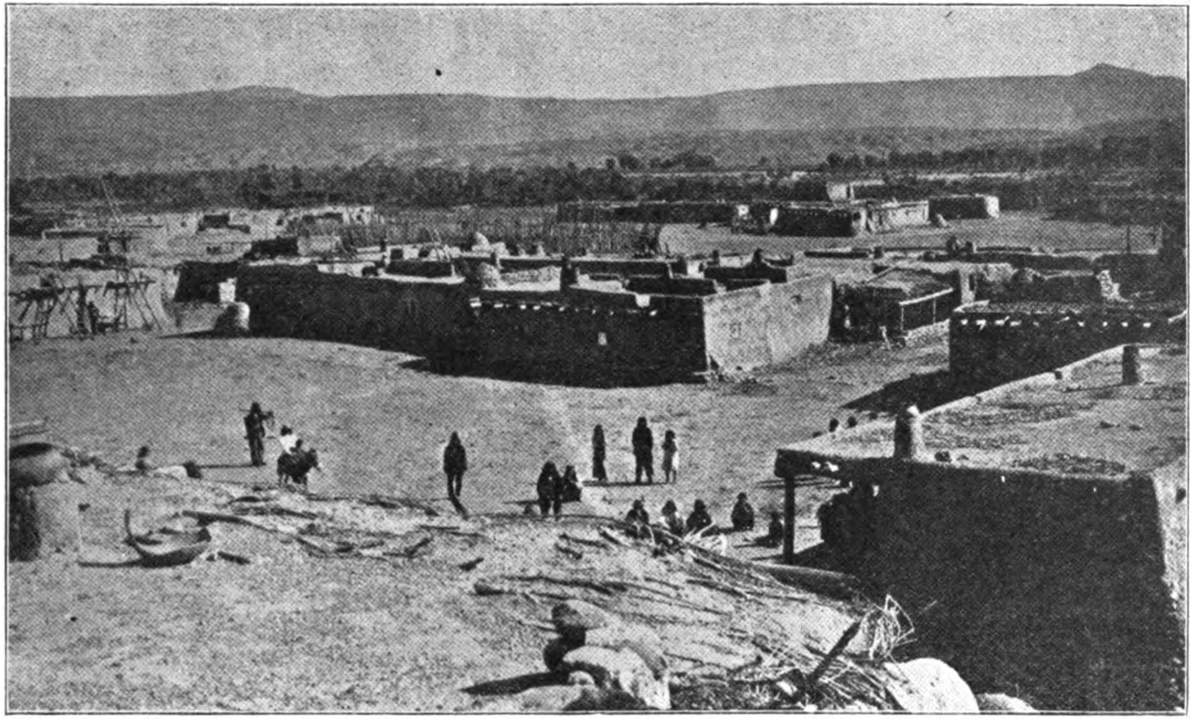


Photo by Museum Staff.

PUEBLO OF COCHITI

have re-occupied their villages by 1683, but in that year they abandoned them for the second time, again occupying the Potrero Viejo where they built a large pueblo which they inhabited until forced out by De Vargas, who visited them first in 1692. At that time they agreed to return to their former villages which they did, but the Cochiti and San Marcos returned to the fort before the end of 1692 and refused to submit to Spanish authority. De Vargas with allies from the Pueblos of Sia, Santa Ana, and San Felipe attacked Potrero Viejo on April 16, 1693, killing twenty-one and capturing 342 women and children. A few days later, April 21st, De Vargas' Indian allies departed. The Cochiti then made an attack upon the Spaniards and recovered half of those that had been captured. The Spanish force in this battle consisted of seventy soldiers, twenty colonists and 100 Indian allies. On the 24th of April De Vargas burned the Pueblo on Potrero Viejo and started on the return trip to Santa Fe with 200 captives, seventy horses and 900 sheep. The Indians returned to their valley Pueblo and the church which had been destroyed during the revolt was rebuilt on the same site.

The church called *Yglesia y Mission de San Buenaventura de Cochiti de los Queres* is the most prominent structure of the Pueblo. The dimensions are 34 by 100 feet. In front of the church is a walled courtyard with an ornamental gateway opposite the entrance to the mission. The façade has a porch and balcony extending the width of the building and enclosed on the sides by the extension of the side walls. The front fire wall is run up in the center forming a triangular shaped wall with an opening for the bell with smaller triangular shaped wall extensions on either side. The roof of the structure is formed by thirty-eight carved vigas. In the rear of the church is the usual choir loft entered by a ladder. The absence of windows is a marked characteristic of New Mexico mission churches. In this edifice there is one in the chancel and one on the south wall.

The furnishings of the mission consist of three statues and a painting of Saint Buenaventura, six paintings portraying events in the life of Christ, the Stations of the Cross, and tin candlesticks of Mexican origin.

The chief festival of the year occurs on Saint Buenaventura's Day, July 14th. At eight o'clock in the morning tall standards are raised at each of the two kivas. This is followed an hour later by a proclamation made by the war captain in the plaza in the name of the Pueblo governor announcing the ceremonies for the day. After the services conducted in the church by the Catholic priest of Peña Blanca of which Cochiti is a *visita* the procession is formed in order to conduct the *santos* to the altar which is constructed of pine branches in the plaza. The inside of the booth, and the altar are covered with Navaho blankets. The procession is led by the cross bearer, followed by two candle bearers, the four supporters of the canopy under which is carried the three statues of the Pueblo's patron saint, the priest, a chorus of girls singing an anthem, and the forty men and women, ten of each sex from each kiva, who are the performers in the tribal religious ceremony. After the *santos* are placed in the booth the Catholic priest retires and the traditional dance begins which is for the purpose of appeasing angry spirits and of gaining the favor of good spirits, particularly in matters of health, rain and good crops. During the day, while the dance is in progress, members of the Pueblo bring offerings of food and place them before the altar. They kneel, pray and depart. The tribal ceremony in the form of a religious dance performed by representatives of the two kivas continues from the time the *santos* are placed on the altar in the booth until sunset, the groups of twenty each having their own tom-tom beater and group of sixteen chanters; and alternating, resting and dancing, throughout the day.

Photo by Museum Staff.

CORN DANCE AT COCHITI

The prayer chants form the central motive of the dance. Each of the kivas provides a number of special characters who in addition to being the messengers of the spirits and persons of great power called Koshares are the fun-makers of the occasion. They are daubed with white paint and grotesquely arrayed in furs, pine branches, feathers and scant clothing. All of the finery and sacred paraphernalia owned by the Indians are in use during the dance. Furs, beads, necklaces of coral and turquoise, silver ornaments, silk embroidered cloth, rattles, bells, buckskin moccasins, and wrapped buckskin leggings, may be noted in the costumes of the members of the tribe taking part in the ceremony. The women wear the tablet boards of irregular outline, the horizontal lines representing clouds and the vertical lines rain. The head-dress of the men consists of green feathers. The chanters are dressed in white with bright colored belts and with a red band around the head. About half an hour before sunset the chanters, the standard-bearers, tom-tom beaters and the dancers of the two kivas perform their marching and stationary steps at the same time although as separate units. The two groups stop dancing and one is drawn up in double file at the north end of the plaza and the other at the south end with the standard bearer in front of each group. This is followed by the marching of the two groups toward the center of the plaza. With the firing of a gun and the ringing of the church bells the ceremony is brought to a close, but not entirely, for the *santos* must be taken from the altar booth, placed under the canopy, the procession formed and the *santos* conducted to their place in the chancel of the church.

SANTO DOMINGO PUEBLO

The Pueblo of Santo Domingo is on the east bank of the Rio Grande, a short distance south of the mouth of Galisteo Creek, about ten miles south of Cochiti and ten miles north of San Felipe, at an altitude of 5,190 feet.

The Santo Domingo (Keres) name for the pueblo is *Kyewa*. The Picuris (Tiwa) call it *Tuwitha*. The Sandia (Tiwa) speak of it as *Tewiai*. The Jemez (Towa) give it the name *Tawigii*. The Cochiti call it *Tyewa*. The San Felipe (Keresan) name is *Kiwa*. The Laguna speak of it as *Dyiwi*. The Navaho (Athapascan) name is *Tqo Hajilo*.

The population figures for the Pueblo show a fluctuation in the number of people. In 1680 the number was 150; in 1760 they numbered 424; in 1797 the number is given as 1,483; in 1805 the figure dropped to 333; in 1809 the enumeration placed the population at 720; in 1860 at 261; in 1880 the figure was 1,129; 1890 at 969, 1900 at 771, and in 1910 the census return fixed the population at 817 persons.

The grant of lands to the Pueblo is one of the largest of the Pueblo grants. The original survey was made in 1859. allowing the Indians 74,743 acres. This action followed the investigation of the United States surveyor general for New Mexico in 1856, and the confirmation of the grant by the United States Congress December 22, 1858. When the attorneys for the Court of Private Land Claims investigated the title deeds of the pueblo they found eight documents, seven of which were true papers and one a forgery. The spurious document purported to be a grant made in 1689 by Cruzate at El Paso. In this document there are phrases taken from a work published at Pueblo, Mexico, in 1832, by Antonio Barreyro, called *Ojeada sobre Nuevo Mejico*, which proves that this Cruzate grant was forged after 1832. The grant as surveyed in 1858 was about six miles in width, extending three miles north and three miles south of the

Pueblo. West of the Rio Grande it included the Hondo Canyon for a distance of ten miles, and east of the Rio Grande it covered the lower Galisteo Valley for ten miles. In 1907 a resurvey of the grant was made and the size materially enlarged, making the total area 92,398 acres.

The first pueblo occupied by these Indians is said to have been twelve miles west of Cochiti, on the Quemada Mesa, south of Quemada Canyon, which is a southern branch of Peralta Canyon. The pueblo was built in very compact form with a very small courtyard in the middle having 296 ground floor rooms about it. The potsherds found are of the corrugated and black-and-white types with glazed pieces generally absent. The walls were of tufa blocks. The kivas were in the buildings rather than in the court as in most of the Pajarito Plateau ruins, and they were small—sixteen and seventeen feet in diameter, respectively—as compared with those of other ruins. The second ruin, called Gipuy, which Indian tradition assigns as a former home of the Santo Domingo Indians, is on the north side of Galisteo Creek, five miles from the Rio Grande and a little less from the location of the present Pueblo. A part of this ruin has been washed away by the torrents coming down Galisteo Creek on the occasions of heavy rainfall, which are not uncommon in the summer months. Low mounds of rubble, adobe, and glazed pottery mark the site. It is probable that these Indians moved from this site to the neighborhood of their present location before Gaspar Castaño de Sosa visited Santo Domingo in 1591. In the early seventeenth century the pueblo was on the south bank of Galisteo Creek, a short distance east of the present location, but as a result of flood they moved westward to the bank of the Rio Grande, and there they again suffered from floods in the nineteenth century which forced them to move a short distance eastward.

The history of the pueblo first records the visit of Gaspar Castaño de Sosa in 1591, when the name Santo Domingo came into existence. Oñate made it the head of the missionary province of the Keres Pueblos, assigning to the district Friar Juan de Rosas. The first church was built in 1605 by Friar Juan de Escalona, the second Comisario of the Franciscan missions of New Mexico, who died at the pueblo in 1607. When the Pueblo Revolt broke out in 1680, the pueblo furnished one of the Indian leaders, whose name was Alonzo Catiti. Three missionaries were killed in the friary and their bodies were piled near the altar in the church. They were Friars Juan de Talaban, Antonio de Lorenzana and Joseph Montes de Oca. A number of Spanish people living between Santo Domingo and San Felipe were killed. In 1681 the Indians of the pueblo joined the Cochiti and others in the retreat to Potrero Viejo, but seem to have returned to their village in 1683. They appear to have accepted the Reconquest in 1692, and again in 1693, without making any opposition to the return of the Spaniards. In the latter part of the eighteenth century Santo Domingo was the chief mission of the region having Cochiti and San Felipe as *visitas*. The eighteenth century church was one of the largest of the mission edifices in New Mexico. It, and the western part of the Pueblo, were washed away in 1886, when the Rio Grande cut into the east bank where the Pueblo stood. The new church and the newer part of the pueblo have been built since that time east of the part of the village that was not swept away in 1886.

SAN FELIPE PUEBLO

The Pueblo of San Felipe is on the west bank of the Rio Grande, opposite the mouth of San Pedro Creek, and at the foot of Tamita Mesa. It is half way between Bernalillo and Santo Domingo, being twelve miles north of Bernalillo, at an altitude of 5,007 feet.

The San Felipe (Keres) call their Pueblo *Katshtya*. In the Tewa language it is known as *Nanykwanrige,* meaning "Pueblo of the place where the earth is sticky." The Jemez (Towa) know the Pueblo as *Kwilegii.* The other Pueblos use names that are variations of the Keres form. The Navaho call it *Sai Beehoghan,* meaning "sand houses."

The population of the Pueblo has probably varied between 400 and 600. In 1680 the number was given as 600, which included Santa Ana Pueblo. In 1760 the number was recorded as 458, and in 1790 as 532. In 1809 the figure was placed at 405, in 1860 at 360, in 1890 at 501, and in 1910 the census figure fixed the population at 490.

The San Felipe grant adjoins the Santo Domingo lands on the south along the Rio Grande. It is about the same size as the Cochiti grant, which borders the Santo Domingo holdings on the north. In addition to the spurious Cruzate grant of 1689, there is a paper concerning the right of the pueblo to lands, dated 1770. The United States surveyor general for New Mexico recommended that the lands claimed by the pueblo be deeded to them. The United States Congress confirmed the grant December 22, 1858, and it was surveyed the following year for 34,766 acres. The patent to these lands was issued by the United States Land Office in 1864. The town of Algodones is on the southern part of the pueblo grant. The land holdings of these Indians were enlarged in the form of a reservation set aside by an Executive Order of the President of the United States, June 13, 1902. These lands consist of about 15,000 acres lying east of the original grant.

According to Keres tradition, the San Felipe and the Cochiti were in the distant past one people, living at *Kotyetekaihya,* a ruined pueblo in Cochiti Canyon about seven miles northwest of the present pueblo of Cochiti. As the result of attacks, probably from the Tewa Indians, those who later became the Cochiti moved to Potrero Viejo, while the ancestors of the present San Felipe Indians built a Pueblo, now a ruin called *Katshtya Shoma,* on the west side of the Rio Grande, opposite Santo Domingo and near the village of Cubero. From here they moved southward to a location on the east bank of the Rio Grande opposite the present Pueblo, where the third pueblo was built, also called *Katshtya Shoma.* No trace of this village remains, San Pedro Creek having carried away the ruins which marked the site of the San Felipe Pueblo in the seventeenth century. When the San Felipe Indians returned from Potrero Viejo, where they had fled with the Cochiti in 1681, they built a small Pueblo on Black Mesa, overlooking the Rio Grande, a short distance north of the present Pueblo. This site was occupied in 1693, when De Vargas entered the country, and it continued to be the home of these Indians until the first part of the eighteenth century, when they moved to the present valley location. This Black Mesa ruin consists of a church, built in 1694 of adobe 20 by 65 feet, standing on the eastern edge of the precipice, and houses, consisting of fifty-eight ground floor rooms, surrounding three sides of a court, two rooms deep and probably originally two stories high. They were built of lava blocks. The entrance to the court is at

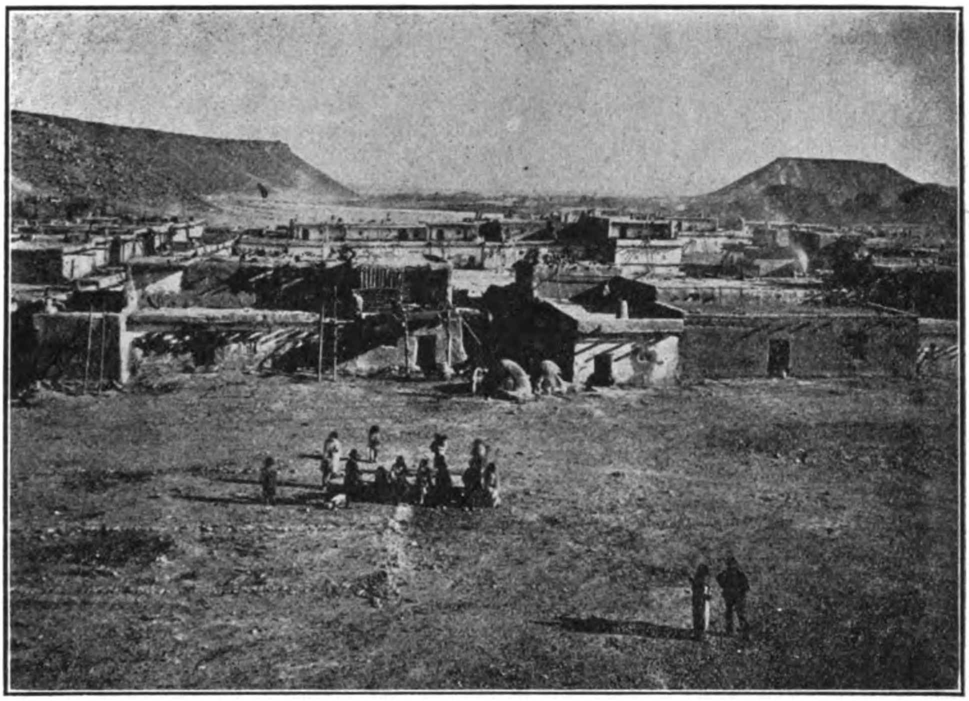


Photo by Museum Staff.

SAN FELIPE PUEBLO

the southwestern corner of the ruin. When De Vargas visited the pueblo in November, 1693, it was occupied and in good repair.

In 1591 the name San Felipe was applied to the Pueblo by Gaspar Cataño de Sosa. When Oñate first visited the Pueblo he called it Castixes, which is a form of the Keres name *Katshtya.* The first mission was established prior to 1609 by the missionary, Friar Cristóbal de Quiñobes, who built the first church. In 1636 the custodian of the Franciscan missions of New Mexico was the resident missionary at the Pueblo. In 1664 Friar Gerónimo was the missionary stationed at San Felipe. At the time of the Pueblo Revolt the San Felipe Indians killed some of their own members who were loyal to the Spaniards; also the Spanish people living north and south of the Pueblo, and they took part in the massacre of the missionaries and settlers at Santo Domingo. As we have seen above, they went northward in 1681 to the Potrero Viejo, but agreed to return to their pueblo when De Vargas visited them in 1692. In 1694 the second church was built on the Black Mesa, the first church having been on the slope of Tamita Mesa. The San Felipe allied with De Vargas in the attack upon Cochiti in 1694. Two years later, during the outbreak of 1696, Friar Alonzo Ximenez de Cisneros, when he was driven from Cochiti, found refuge at San Felipe. The present church was built in the early part of the eighteenth century, when the pueblo was moved from the Black Mesa to the valley. On the front corners of the edifice are large windowless towers that extend about ten feet above the roof in the form of belfries. Between the towers and completing the façade is a roofed balcony with the open space beneath it forming an entrance way.

SANTA ANA PUEBLO

The Pueblo of Santa Ana is the first of the three pueblos met as one proceeds up the Jemez Valley. It is on the north bank of Jemez Creek, eight miles northwest of Bernalillo and ten miles west of San Felipe Pueblo, at an altitude of 5,346 feet.

The Santa Ana Keresan name is *Tamaya,* the meaning of which is unknown. The Tewa call it *Sharenge Onywi,* meaning "dancing place Pueblo." The Jemez (Towa) speak of the pueblo as *Tundagii.* The Picuris (Tiwa) call it *Patutha.*

The population of the Pueblo has declined in recent years. In 1760 the figure was given as 404; in 1805 it was put at 450; in 1856 and 1890 the population was said to be 500; in 1890 the number of people was recorded as 264; in 1900 as 226; and the census of 1910 gave the population of the pueblo as 211.

The land grant to this pueblo consists of 17,361 acres, which is the amount that the Court of Private Land Claims held was contained in four square leagues. The claim was confirmed by the United States Congress in 1869 and surveyed in 1876, about half of the lands lying north of the Jemez Creek and half south of that stream. The patent was issued by the United States Land Office April 25, 1883. In the early part of the nineteenth century the Santa Ana Indians claimed lands along the Rio Grande some five miles from their Pueblo, lying between the mouth of Jemez Creek and La Angostura, further north. This brought them into conflict with Spanish settlers and the San Felipe Pueblo. In 1890 it was stated that the Pueblo was deserted in the summer time, the Indians being engaged in agriculture along the Rio Grande.

The Santa Ana Indians often stated that the lands about their pueblo were not fit for cultivation and that they must have lands along the Rio Grande in order to exist. On June 4, 1819, Ignacio Sanchez Vergara sent a petition on behalf of the Santa Ana Indians to the governor of New Mexico, in which the Indians asked permission to move their pueblo to the banks of the Rio Grande, where they had their agricultural lands. The records show that no further action was taken in this matter. In addition to the four square league grant, the Santa Ana Indians had a joint claim with Sia and Jemez to lands amounting to 382,849 acres. This claim was based on the grant made by the governor of New Mexico in 1766 of a tract of land for grazing purposes. The United States surveyor general for New Mexico approved the claim February 2, 1874. The claim was considered by the Court of Private Land Claims in 1893 and rejected.

Two ruins exist on the Black Mesa that are thought to have been former homes of the Santa Ana Indians. One of these is prehistoric, located north of the Jemez Creek, near its junction with the Rio Grande. The other is on the mesa about half way between Santa Ana and San Felipe, five miles from the present Pueblo.

Oñate visited the Pueblo in 1598 and applied to it the Keresan name Tamaya. It is probable that a mission church existed at the pueblo on the Black Mesa early in the seventeenth century. During the Pueblo Revolt the Santa Ana Indians joined in the destruction of the neighboring Spanish settlements on the Rio Grande Valley. In 1687 Gen. Pedro Reneros de Posada made an *entrada* into the upper Rio Grande Valley from El Paso. The Santa Ana Indians refused to submit, after which he stormed the Pueblo and burned it. When De Vargas entered the country, in the fall of 1692, he found them living in a Pueblo on a mesa known as Cerro Colorado. This may be the ruin which the Sia claim on the mesa across Jemez Creek from the present Jemez Pueblo. The Santa Ana agreed to return to their former lands, where they built the present pueblo and became allies of De Vargas in the Indian difficulties of 1694 and 1696, and helped the Spaniards in the attack upon Potrero Viejo, where the Cochiti and others had fortified themselves. The church was probably built in the early part of the eighteenth century. The façade has a portico and balcony. It is probable that there were originally two belfry towers that flanked the portico; only one of the towers remains. On each side of the main part of the church were rooms in front of which were balconies and porticos, giving the mission a façade of uncommon width. Massive buttresses were used to strengthen the adobe walls of the structure. To the right after entering the walled courtyard there is a one-story building which adjoins the church.

SIA PUEBLO

The Pueblo of Sia is on the north bank of Jemez Creek, sixteen miles northwest of Bernalillo. It is eight miles northwest of Santa Ana Pueblo, and ten miles south of Jemez Pueblo.

The Sia (Keresan) name for the Pueblo is *Tseya*. The Tewa call it *Okuwarenge Onywi,* meaning "Pueblo down by the place of the scattered hills." The Isleta (Tiwa) speak of the pueblo as *Tunawak*. In the Jemez (Towa) language it is called *Sayakwa*. The Navaho (Athapascan) call it *Tlogi*.

The Pueblo has declined in population during the past century. In 1760 the number of inhabitants was placed at 568. In 1790 the village contained 275 inhabitants, and in 1809 there were 286. During the period since 1850 the figures show that the population has varied between 103 and 125. The census of 1910 gave the population as 109.

The Sia lands consist of 17,514 acres in the Jemez Valley between Santa Ana and San Isidro grants. Jemez Creek runs diagonally through the lands. Sia was included in the list of the alleged grants made by Governor Cruzate at El Paso in 1689. On the recommendation of the United States surveyor general for New Mexico, the land claim of four square leagues was confirmed by the United States Congress December 22, 1858. The grant was surveyed the following year, and in 1864 the United States Land Office issued a patent to the pueblo for the area.

According to the statements of Espejo and Oñate in 1583 and 1598, respectively, there were several pueblos in the vicinity of Sia. As there are several ruins in the neighborhood of the present pueblo, these may account for the villages mentioned by the above writers. The mission was established early in the seventeenth century. Friar Bernardo de Marta, who had served in New Mexico for thirty years, died at Sia in 1635. It is very probable that the seventeenth century church was destroyed during the Pueblo Revolt. In the summer of 1689 Governor Domingo Jironza Pétriz de Cruzate made an entrada into the upper Rio Grande Valley from El Paso. The Sia Indians refused to submit, which was followed by an armed conflict known as the Battle of Sia, August 29, 1689. The Indians were defeated and the Pueblo was burned by the Spaniards. When De Vargas entered on the Reconquest they submitted in 1692 and became allies of the conquerors. The Jemez Indians attacked them, with the aid of the Navaho. The decline in the population of the pueblo probably dates from this period between 1689 and 1700.

The façade of the mission church at Sia consists of the balcony and portico, enclosed at the ends by massive walls, which are strengthened by buttresses. The belfry towers are absent, but the place for the bell is supplied by a rectangular opening in an extension of the fire wall, which is constructed in the center of the front wall to a height of ten feet. The altar piece of the church was presented to the pueblo in 1798 by Victor Sandoval and his wife. This covers the western end of the church. It is made of a carved frame, in the center of which is a canvas painting of the Assumption. Below the picture of the Assumption is a painting of the Virgin and Child being crowned by the angels, and above it a painting of Christ with outstretched arms. On each side of these three central paintings are two oval pictures of saints. On the altar is an image of the Virgin of the Assumption, which is carried in the procession of the annual festival of the Pueblo, held August 15th, which is the date of the Festival of the Assumption.

Sia culture is known in greater detail than that of any other Rio Grande Pueblo, as a result of the study made of their manner of living by Mrs. Stevenson. In her work the various phases of the lives of these people are explained. Subjects included are: material traits, beliefs, religious practices; family and social organization; property, and government—in fact almost all of the subjects that would be included in a universal pattern of culture trait complexes. In other words, this small group of Pueblo Indians has all the problems involved in creating a system of society.

CHAPTER VI

THE HISTORIC AND PREHISTORIC PUEBLOS
(Continued)

THE TIWA INDIANS

The modern Pueblos, ruins of historic Pueblos, and the ruins of prehistoric Pueblos, thus far considered, consist of the Northern Tiwa, the Tewa, the Towa and the Northern Keresan. These had their range between Bernalillo and Taos and between Jemez and Pecos. South of these groups there are the Rio Grande Tiwa, the Rio Grande Piro Tiwa, the Manzano Tiwa, the Manzano Piro Tiwa, and the Southern Keresan. In all of the four Tiwa Tanoan districts ruined historic Pueblos exist but only in the Rio Grande Tiwa District are there present day Pueblos. The regions occupied by these various divisions of the Tiwa are as follows: the Rio Grande Tiwa, including the present day Pueblos of Sandia and Isleta, occupied the Rio Grande Valley from Bernalillo to Los Lunas; the Piro Tiwa from Los Lunas to San Marcial; the Manzano Tiwa from Chililí to Quaray along the eastern slope of the Manzano Mountains twenty miles east of Albuquerque; the Manzano Piro Tiwa from Abó to Gran Quivira twenty miles southeast of Belen. Thus there are two geographical divisions to each of the two dialects of the Tiwa language of the Tanoan stock, the Piro in each case lying south of the Southern Tiwa district.

SANDIA, PUARAY, ALAMEDA AND ISLETA PUEBLOS

The Pueblos of the Rio Grande Tiwa district were more numerous in early historic times than at present. In 1541 it was reported that there were twelve Pueblos in this region while in 1629 Benavides stated that there were eight. At the time of the Pueblo Revolt of 1680 the four inhabited Pueblos, Sandia, Puaray, Alameda and Isleta, were abandoned. The re-establishment of Isleta took place between 1709 and 1718 and Sandia was refounded in 1748.

Ruins exist in the district from Bernalillo to Los Lunas but due to the buildings having been constructed of adobe, and as a result of Spanish and American settlements, the remains of the former pueblos are nothing more than mounds. Kuaua, the largest and most northern ruin of this region, is on the west side of the Rio Grande about two miles south of the mouth of Jemez Creek and just north of the main highway leading from Bernalillo up the Jemez Valley. The mounds show that the buildings had been built around three sides of a court, the main building running north and south to which wings were attached. The length of these three buildings was 1,068 feet. They were probably more than two stories in height and may have housed 600 people. South of the main highway on the west side of the Rio Grande is a ruin in a more advanced condition of decay than Kuaua. About a mile further south on the same side of the river are several low mounds covered with potsherds. These mark the site of a former pueblo that would probably accommodate 500 people. Bandelier and others accepted this as the location of the Pueblo of Puaray but if the evidence presented by Hackett is not erroneous, Puaray of 1680 was on the east side of the Rio Grande seven miles further south, that is; about half way between Sandia on the east and Alameda on the west side of the Rio Grande. The foundations of a fourth pueblo were discovered on the site of the Christian Brothers school at Bernalillo. Four miles south of Bernalillo on the east side of the Rio Grande is the Pueblo of Sandia, which will be discussed later. Puaray ruin should be one league (2.6 miles) farther south on the same side of the river but no ruin has been recorded as existing in this locality. One league south of Puaray on the west side of the Rio Grande is the location given in 1680 for the Pueblo of Alameda. Probably other ruins exist between Sandia and Isleta but the conditions mentioned above make them difficult to recognize. A few miles north of Isleta on the Mesa de los Padillas there is a small ruin called Puretuay. It consists of sixty rooms arranged in two rows forming two sides of a square. Near the mounds are the remains of a circular estufa the diameter of which is twenty-two feet. Potsherds of the glazed, corrugated, and black-and-white styles have been found in the vicinity.

The Pueblo of Sandia is located four miles south of Bernalillo on the east side of the Rio Grande about a mile from the river, at an altitude of 5,048 feet.

The Sandia (Tiwa) name for the Pueblo is *Nafiat*, meaning "dusty place." The Taos (Tiwa) call it *Napfeta* and the Picuris (Tiwa) speak of it as *Napetha*. The name Sandia was applied in the seventeenth century, meaning "watermelon" and has continued rather than the saint names San Francisco and Nuestra Señora de los Dolores. The Cochiti (Keresan) call the Pueblo *Washretsae*. The Zuñi (Zuñian) give it the name *Wesualakuin*. In the Hopi (Shoshonean) language it is known as *Payopi*, while the Pueblo which the Sandia Indians built on the Middle Mesa of the Hopi is called *Payupki*. The Navaho (Athapascan) speak of Sandia as *Khin Lagai*, meaning "white house."

The population of the Pueblo in 1680 was placed at 3,000. Immediately following the revolt the Indians abandoned their home, some of them building a new village on the Middle Mesa in the Hopi country. In 1748 the pueblo was re-established, the Indians having been brought back from the Hopi region. In 1760 the number was given as 291. In 1790 the census return gave the pueblo a population of 304. In 1850 the number was 241; in 1860 it was 217; in 1890 the figure was 150; and in 1910 the census return showed the village consisted of seventy-three persons.

The grant of lands by the governor of New Mexico under orders from the Viceroy of New Spain was specifically made in 1748, of which documentary proof exists. The instructions required that the lands be measured one league in each cardinal direction from the center of the pueblo. When the agent delegated to mark the grant found that the league to the west would conflict with lands owned by Spanish settlers, a compromise was agreed upon which extended the Indian possessions more than a league to the north and south leaving the Rio Grande as the boundary on the west. The settlers agreed that the Indians should be allowed to pasture their stock on lands west of the river. The Sandia grant was confirmed by the United States Congress December 22, 1858, upon the recommendation of the surveyor general for New Mexico. The following year it was surveyed for 24,187 acres, the patent for which was issued by the United States Land Office in 1864.

Sandia was one of the towns of the province which in Coronado's time was called Tiguex. Oñate in 1598 visited the Pueblo which he spoke of as Napeya. The mission of San Francisco was established by 1617 under Zárate Salmerón. At the time of the Pueblo Revolt the Sandia Indians joined in the expulsion of the Spaniards. In the following year, 1681, Otermin burned the Pueblo during his attempt to reconquer the country. Following this event the inhabitants deserted the Rio Grande Valley and built a pueblo on the Middle Mesa of the Hopi. It was not until 1742 that Friars Delgado and Pino brought these Indians back to the Rio Grande. The refounding of the village on the site of the earlier Pueblo took place in 1748. With the 350 Indians assembled at the location by Friar Juan Miguel Menchero, the houses were rebuilt and a new mission was established called Nuestra Señora de los Dolores y San Antonio. The ruins of this mission church are west of the present Pueblo. About 1870 this building was abandoned and a new church constructed to the north of the village.

The Pueblos of Puaray and Alameda were abandoned at the time of the Pueblo Revolt and have never been re-occupied. Puaray in 1680 had a population of 200. It is believed to have been the Tiguex village of the Province of Tiguex where Coronado had a battle with the Indians. Friar Juan de la Cruz remained as a missionary to the Pueblo after the departure of the Coronado expedition and was killed. It was here that Friar

Francisco Lopez and probably Friar Agustin Rodriguez were killed in 1581 when they attempted to convert the Indians without any military protection. According to the records of the Oñate expedition, a picture of the killing of the friars was seen painted on the walls of one of the rooms of the pueblo. All that is known of the former Pueblo of Alameda is that it had a population of 300 in 1680 and that it was on the west side of the river seven and a half or eight leagues north of Isleta.

The Pueblo of Isleta is situated twelve miles south of Albuquerque on the west bank of the Rio Grande at an altitude of 4,898 feet. The present location is not on "a little island." Some believe that the site has been changed since the sixteenth century while others believe that that the bed of the river has shifted.

The Isleta (Tiwa) name for the Pueblo is *Shiahwibak*, meaning "knife laid on the ground to play hwib." The Tewa name is *Tsiqwebege Onywi*, meaning "kick flaking-stone place Pueblo." The Picuris (Tiwa) speak of the Pueblo as *Chiwhetha.* The Jemez (Towa) give it the name *Tewagii*, meaning "Tiwa place." The Navaho (Athapascan) call the Pueblo *Natqoho*, meaning "enemies at the water."

The population of the Pueblo at the time of the Pueblo Revolt was placed at 2,000 which included many of the Indians from the recently abandoned Manzano Tiwa Pueblos. After the revolt the Pueblo was deserted until 1718 when it was re-established. In 1760 the number of people was recorded as 304 while by 1809 the population had increased to 487 and by 1850 to 751. Since 1880 the census reports have placed the population figure in the neighborhood of 1,000 at the end of each decade.

The land claim of the Pueblo confirmed by the United States Congress December 22, 1858, amounted to 110,080 acres which was surveyed in 1859 and patented by the United States Land Office in 1864. This action was based on the report of the United States surveyor general for New Mexico following an investigation made in 1856. The Indians claimed that they had title papers but that these had been deposited in the archives of the Territory. In addition to these lands the Court of Private Land Claims confirmed to the Pueblo the Lo de Padilla tract of 51,940 acres lying east of the Rio Grande and south of the Isleta Pueblo Grant. This land had been granted to Diego Padilla in 1718 and the Isleta Indians had purchased it from the heirs of Padilla about the middle of the eighteenth century. The tract was patented April 9, 1908. A part of the Joaquin Sedillo grant of 22,636 acres which lies west of the Rio Grande and south of the Isleta grant was confirmed to the Pueblo by the Court of Private Land Claims, and patented November 15, 1909.

The Spanish mission known as San Antonio de Isleta was established prior to 1629 by Friar Juan de Salas. The church and friary were said to be both costly and beautiful. In 1636 Friar Francisco de la Concepcion served the mission. About 1675 the people of the Manzano Tiwa Pueblos of Chililí, Tajique, and Quaray were forced by the Apache to abandon their locations, and seek homes elsewhere. It was natural that they should join their kinsmen at Isleta which they did and this probably accounts for the large population that the pueblo had in 1680, namely: 2,000. When the Pueblo Revolt broke out, there were so many Spanish people in the vicinity of Isleta that the Indians were prevented from joining in the uprising, but as soon as the Lieutenant Governor Alonzo García evacuated the village, about August 25, 1680, the Indians joined the forces of those in rebellion and deserted their Pueblo. In the fall of the next year Governor Otermín surprised the village and captured it. Upon his return to the Pueblo from an attempt to re-establish Spanish authority in the region above Isleta, he determined to take the Indians out of the town with him on his second retreat to El Paso. A total number of 385 were taken southward and established in a Pueblo known as Isleta del Sur ten miles south of El Paso on the Texas side of the Rio Grande. Following Otermín's attack upon the Pueblo it was abandoned and the remaining people dispersed, some of them going to the Hopi country, probably at the invitation of those people who desired assistance against the Apache. The Pueblo was re-occupied between 1709 and 1718 when Friar Juan de la Peña gathered a number of Tiwa Indians at the site and re-established the mission calling it San Agustin. The original church which had been destroyed during the Pueblo Revolt, was replaced in the early part of the eighteenth century.

The mission church of Isleta is one of the largest in New Mexico. The edifice consists of the church which is 110 by 27 feet, the walled yard in front, and a series of rooms located on the east side of the church, built around two sides of a court with a wall in front. The walls of the buildings are in some cases four feet thick supported by massive buttresses at the corners. The buildings form an excellent example of pueblo mission architecture except for the two pointed wooden belfries that have been added to the structure since the American occupation of New Mexico. Only four small windows furnish light for the church. There is a choir loft in the rear above the entrance. The chancel is supplied with very complete furnishings, namely: two statues of Saint Augustine, one in old Spanish style, the other of recent French pattern, statues of Saint Joseph, the Virgin Mary, a number of crucifixes and pictures of saints. On the walls of the body of the church are four oil paintings representing Saint Bartholomew, Our Lady of Guadalupe, Saint Rosalie, and an unknown saint.

THE MANZANO TIWA PUEBLOS—CHILILI, TAJIQUE, AND QUARAY

The Pueblos of Chililí, Tajique and Quaray were in existence until about 1675 when they were deserted, the Indians moving to the Rio Grande Valley. The villages at the time of the abandonment contained 1,400 people: Chililí, 500; Tajique, 300; and Quaray, 600. Chililí ruins are twenty-five miles southeast of Albuquerque on the eastern slope of the Manzano Mountains on the west bank of Chililí Arroyo, where there are remains of a former Pueblo. On the opposite side of the arroyo the foundations of the mission church have been traced. This mission which was called Navidad de Nuestra Señora was established by Friar Alonso Peinado who became custodian of the Franciscan Missions of New Mexico in 1608. The Pueblo of Tajique ruins are fifteen miles south of Chililí on the south bank of Tajique Arroyo. The Isleta (Tiwa) call the pueblo *Tushyityay*. From the ruins to the north and west of the present settlements it has been determined that the houses were built of stone while the mission church was made of adobe. Potsherds of black-and-white, and glazed wares have been found in the vicinity. At the time of the abandonment there was a priest stationed at the Pueblo. About five miles south of Tajique is the village of Manzano, at an altitude of 6,961 feet, named from an ancient apple orchard planted before the abandonment of the district. Ruins of former Pueblos exist both east and west of the present settlement.

The ruins of the Pueblo and church of Quaray are larger than those of the other Manzano Tiwa locations. It is about five miles southeast of Manzano, whose orchard and ruins may have been a part of the Quaray Pueblo, fifteen miles west of Willard and five miles north of Mountainair. The mission church dedicated to the Immaculate Conception was built about 1629 when Friar Francisco de Acevedo was the missionary for the Manzano Pueblos. In 1642 Juan de Salas was the resident friar at Quaray. Some years later, 1659, Friar Juan Gerónimo de la Llana was buried at the Pueblo. Between 1664 and 1669 an uprising against the Spanish authorities was planned by an Indian of the Pueblo named Estéban Clemente in which the Apache were included but the plot was discovered. The ruins consist of the main Pueblo, a more ancient one to the southwest of the principal ruin, the church and friary, and a wall that enclosed the village. The ancient village appears to have been a round pueblo. The later dwelling place consisted of community houses two or more stories high built around three courts. In the courts kivas existed as the round depressions prove. The buildings were constructed of red sandstone which is found in the region, the small pieces being readily used without dressing. Nothing remains of these Pueblos but the mounds marking the sites. In the case of the mission church the situation is different, for the walls, which were several times thicker than those of the Pueblo buildings, have resisted more successfully the forces of disintegration. These four-foot walls stand more than twenty feet in height. The church is cruciform in shape having a length of 103 feet and a width in the nave of twenty-seven, and in the transepts of forty-eight. The length of the church is divided into three parts: the nave which is sixty-four feet; the transepts, twenty-four feet; and the chancel, fifteen feet. The back part of the chancel is eight feet in width which is increased to sixteen on the line where the walls of the transepts meet those of the chancel. The friary foundations show that it was a building 49 by 58 feet.

THE MANZANO PIRO TIWA PUEBLOS

The Manzano Piro speak a dialect of the Tiwa language which is a part of the Tanoan stock, a dialect that has become almost extinct. These Indians occupied an area some thirty miles east of the Rio Grande at the southern end of the Manzano Mountains. Chamuscado stated that he saw eleven pueblos in 1580 in the vicinity of the salines and Benavides writing in 1629 mentioned the existence of fourteen in the district. If three of the number were the Tiwa Pueblos of Chililí, Tajique and Quaray, there would be eight or eleven to be accounted for. The Abó and Tabirá Pueblos are definitely located, the ruins of the mission church in both cases are conspicuous. Tenabó which it is said was the seat of a mission church, has not been discovered. Other ruins exist but the archæological and documentary material have not shown that they were occupied in historic times, although there must have been a number of other occupied Pueblos in the region east of the Rio Grande if the statements of Benavides and Chamuscado are correct. Ruins which have been given the names Montezuma, Pardo, Colorado and Blanco are south of the Tabirá, or Gran Quivira ruin.

The Abó ruins are twenty miles south of Manzano on Abó Arroyo an upper branch of Alamillo Creek, which flows into the Rio Grande at Polvadera. The mission of San Gregorio was established in 1629 by Friar Francisco de Acevedo who died at Abó in 1644. The pueblo was abandoned prior to 1675. The massive walls of the mission church, which was constructed of red sandstone, was about the same size and shape as that at Quaray. Only mounds covering the foundations mark the site of the friary which adjoined the church, and the Pueblo near by. The church and pueblo were surrounded by a wall enclosing an area 942 by 450 feet. A second ruin is found across Empedradillo Arroyo which may have been the site of a village occupied before the Pueblo near the mission. About a mile from the church there are small house ruins. Tenabó is mentioned as the site of a mission established at the same time as Abó but no mission ruins have been found, although Bandelier believed that the ruins at Siete Arroyos west of Abó may be those of the Tenabó mission.

Gran Quivira, or more properly Tabirá, is one of the notable ruins of New Mexico. It is located twenty miles south of Willard, at an altitude of 6,407 feet. The name Gran Quivira was used by the American writers in the period between 1850 and 1870. When the name was first applied to the ruin is unknown. It was Bandelier who from documentary evidence and archæological investigation proved that the name was Tabirá, that it had been the seat of a Spanish mission and that in all its characteristics it was a typical ruined settlement of Pueblo Indians. Quivira was the name applied in 1541 by the Coronado chronicler to a region far to the east of New Mexico which an Indian had told Coronado was a land of great wealth. Tabirá and Quivira have no relation except that the name of the latter region which was in the vicinity of Wichita, Kansas, was transferred to this southeastern outpost of Pueblo Culture.

Photo by Museum Staff.

MISSION RUINS AT QUARAY

The Tabirá ruined Pueblo and mission occupy the crest of a hill running east and west which forms a part of Jumanos Mesa. As a result of the lay of the land the Pueblo was not built in a square but consisted of two parallel rows of houses, eighteen in number, the largest of which was 45 by 225 feet. The average size of 196 rooms, as shown by the foundations, is 9 by 12 feet. Scattered among the ruins are depressions showing six kivas that were subterranean varying in diameter from twenty to thirty feet. On the highland east of the pueblo there exist the outlines of three circular reservoirs respectively 130, 115 and ninety-eight feet in diameter which provided for storage of water. From the lowest reservoir a ditch runs to the western end of the pueblo where there is another place for water storage 130 feet in diameter. The distance from the most eastern reservoir to the church is about half a mile. At the western end of the ruins stand the remains of two churches. The smaller one is the older one, having been built by Friar Francisco de Acevedo betwen 1628 and 1644. This structure was 118 feet in length and thirty-two in width. The walls of the larger church situated north of the older church are still standing in places to a height of twenty feet. The newer and larger church was probably built after 1660. Since the pueblo was abandoned about 1670, it may not have been completed before the location became untenable. The walls of the churches, as well as all other buildings, were built of grey limestone. The former were from four to six feet in thickness while the walls of the Pueblo were only one foot thick. The large church was built in the shape of a Latin cross. The nave is eighty-four feet, the transepts twenty-two feet, and the chancel, twenty-two feet, making a total length inside of 128 feet. The width of the nave is twenty-seven feet and the chancel thirty-six feet. A friary 98 by 133 feet adjoined the church on the south side. The ruined foundations of the friary show an unusually large number of rooms built around a court. The size of this structure has caused some to suppose that several missionaries were stationed at Tabirá carrying on their work as far as forty miles to the east among the Jumanos, and this idea has led to the opinion that Tabirá may have also been the location referred to as the Pueblo of the Jumanos.

THE RIO GRANDE PIRO TIWA PUEBLOS

Historic pueblo ruins and pre-historic ruins exist along the Rio Grande between Los Lunas and San Marcial in Valencia and Socorro counties, but the last pueblo was deserted in 1680 and the only Indian settlements since that time have been those founded at Tomé and Belen in the middle of the eighteenth century by the Spaniards. These villages were established for *genizaros*, that is; captive Indians recovered from the Apache by the Spanish Government. Benavides in 1630 stated that there were fourteen pueblos with a population of 6,000 and that these were between La Joya and San Antonio. Oñate mentioned pueblos San Juan Bautista, Trenaquel and Qualacú, the first being north of La Joya and the latter two at San Marcial south of San Antonio which seems to prove that the pueblos were being abandoned rapidly in the period between 1598 and 1630. Forty years later only four pueblos were in existence, each having its church.

From Los Lunas south the following ruins form an incomplete list of Pueblo and small house sites (these locations are obscured on account of the material which was generally used in the area, namely: adobe, but foundations, pottery, debris and other signs show that this region was a part of the pueblo culture area): A nameless ruin at Tomé on the east side of the Rio Grande; Pueblo de Alto ruin, six miles south of Belen on the west side of the river; a nameless pueblo ruin at Sabinal, thirteen miles south of Belen on the west side of the river; San Juan Bautista ruin on the east side opposite Sabinal; Sevilleta ruin on the east side opposite Polvadera, thirteen miles south of La Joya; Teypana, opposite Lemitar, on the east side, five miles south of Polvadera; Pilabó ruin on the west side of the Rio Grande at Socorro, eighty miles south of Albuquerque; El Barro ruins three miles north of Socorro on the west side of the river; ruins at Socorro Hot Springs, three miles west of Socorro; Pueblo ruin three miles north on the east side of the river at the mouth of Parida Arroyo; small house ruins along the east side of the Rio Grande opposite Socorro; Senecú ruin at San Antonio, eleven miles south of Socorro on the west side; San Pascual ruin on the east side opposite San Antonio; Trenaquel ruin on the west side of the river at San Marcial, eighteen miles south of San Antonio; and Qualacú on the east side of the river opposite San Marcial. At the time of the Pueblo Revolt only four of the sites were occupied and each had its mission. The names of these from north to south were: San Luis Obispo de Sevilleta on the east side of the Rio Grande at La Joya; Santa Ana de Alamillo on the east side of the river opposite Polvadera; Nuestra Señora del Socorro de Pilabó on the west side of the Rio Grande at Socorro; and San Antonio de Senecú on the west side of the river at San Antonio. There are a few facts known about these pueblos and missions except Alamillo. By the latter part of the seventeenth century the attacks of the Apache and the policy of the missionaries had decreased the number of occupied sites to these four.

Sevilleta, which was called Nueva Sevilla by Oñate, was destroyed by the Apache shortly before 1629 for Benavides stated that he rebuilt the pueblo and founded there the mission of San Luis Obispo. At the time of the Pueblo Revolt some of the Indians accompanied Otermín to El Paso. In 1681 Otermín passed through the village finding it completely deserted, a condition that has continued from that time to the present.

The name Socorro was originally applied by Oñate to a Pueblo about eight miles north of the present Socorro on the east side of the Rio Grande but the Pueblo of historic importance called Pilabó stood on the site of the present town of Socorro. The mission called Nuestra Señora del Socorro de Pilabó was founded by Friar García de San Francisco y Zuñiga in 1629. None of the Piro Indians joined in the Pueblo Revolt. They feared that the northern Indians would attack them and for this reason they joined Otermín in 1680 in his retreat to El Paso. Socorro del Sur was established for these Indians on the north side of the Rio Grande a short distance south of El Paso.

The Mission of San Antonio de Senecú was founded in 1629 by Friar Antonio de Arteaga and Friar García de San Francisco y Zuñiga. It seems that shortly before 1675 the inhabitants of Senecú in conspiracy with the Apache, killed the *alcalde mayor* and four other Spaniards. Six Indians of the pueblo were found guilty in the matter and hanged. On January 23, 1675, the Apache surprised the village, killed the missionary Friar Alonzo Gil de Avila, and a number of the Indians. The remaining inhabitants fled north to the Pueblo of Socorro and retreated in 1680 with the Indians of that village to El Paso. Senecú del Sur was established by the Spaniards below El Paso on the south side of the Rio Grande, for these and other Piro Indians.

LAGUNA PUEBLO

The Pueblo of Laguna is on the San José River, forty-five miles due west of Albuquerque at an altitude of 5,786 feet. It is twenty miles northeast of the better known Pueblo of Acoma.

The name Laguna was applied to this village at the time it was founded in 1699. The Laguna Indians (Keresan) call their Pueblo *Kawaika*. The Tewa give it the name *Potoiwe Onywin*, meaning "Pueblo where the water is dammed up." The Zuni call it *Kyanathlanakwe* and the Navaho (Athapascan) speak of it as *Tqolani*. The Jemez (Towa) designate it as *Keoweegii* and the Cochiti (Keresan) know it as *Kawaika*. The Isleta (Tiwa) in speaking of the Pueblo use the name *Kuhkweai* and the Picuris (Tiwa) know it as *Pahwima*.

The Pueblo has shown a marked increase in population since 1760 when it numbered 600. In 1805 the figure was placed at 940 and in 1860 at 927. The census of 1890 gave the number of people as 970 and the census of 1900 as 1,384. The enumeration in 1910 fixed the population for the Pueblo at 1,472.

The lands held by the Laguna Indians consist of seven tracts that have been obtained by various means. The so-called Cruzate grants of 1689 included two papers relating to a grant of four square leagues to the pueblo notwithstanding the fact that the Spanish government did not recognize the existence of an Indian settlement at the present site of Laguna until 1699. Internal evidence of document "B" shows that the paper contains pass-ages from a book published in 1832 at Puebla, Mexico, by Antonio Barreyro entitled, *Ojeada sobre Nuevo Mexico,* also that the signatures of the governor and secretary of New Mexico are forgeries. The Act of Congress December 22, 1858, confirming land grants to New Mexico Pueblos did not include the western pueblos of Laguna, Acoma and Zuñi. The first action taken relative to Laguna lands was November 22, 1872, when the United States surveyor general for New Mexico recommended the confirmation of lands claimed by the Laguna Indians which amounted to about 125,000 acres. A survey was made of the Laguna claim in 1877 for 125,225 acres but Congress did not confirm the claim. The Laguna Indians brought the matter before the United States Court of Private Land Claims at first basing their claim on the 1689 documents but when the United States attorneys showed that those documents could be proved forgeries, the claim was changed to the more general ground, which required no document, that the Spanish government made it a practice of allowing the Pueblos four square leagues. The Court of Private Land Claims confirmed the grant for four square

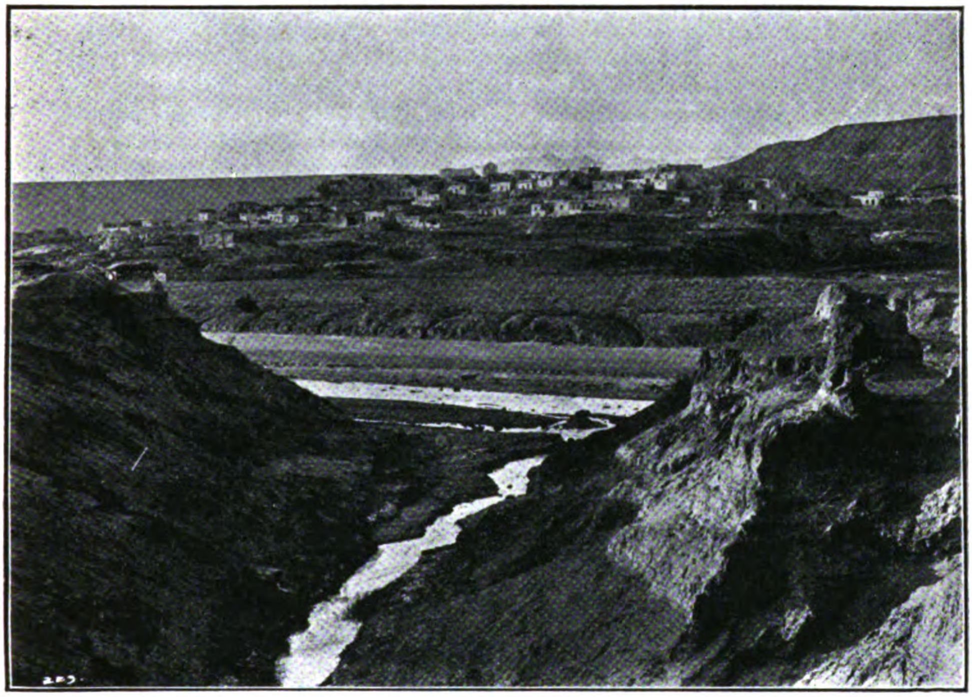


Photo by Museum Staff.

LAGUNA PUEBLO

leagues, which allowed the pueblo 17,328 acres. The patent for this area, in the center of which stands the pueblo, was issued in 1909. There were lands confirmed to the Pueblo of Laguna more than forty years before the settlement of the land claims in the immediate vicinity of the village. These lands were tracts that the Indians had bought from individuals to whom they had been granted by the Spanish government. The five ranches included in the Laguna tracts were confirmed to the Indians of Laguna by the United States Congress, June 21, 1884. They are as follows: Paguate, located north of Laguna, containing about 50,000 acres; El Rito, southeast of Laguna, including about 11,000 acres; San Juan, situated east of Laguna, amounting to 7,000 acres; Gigante, which is east of San Juan, comprising 7,000 acres; and Santa Ana, west of the Laguna Reservation, containing about 5,000 acres. In addition to these five tracts and the four square leagues in the neighborhood of the Pueblo, the United States Government has, by executive order of the President, set aside a reservation of about 20,000 acres lying west and north of the Laguna grant. The total lands thus controlled by the Laguna Indians amount to about 120,000 acres. Land and water questions furnished the principal difficulty between Laguna and their only Indian neighbors, the Acoma, and the Spanish settlers who located upon grants, called Cubero and Cebolleta, northwest and north, respectively, of the Laguna lands. Almost all of the records concerning these disputes date from the first half of the nineteenth century.

Laguna is the only Pueblo that has been founded since the advent of Europeans into New Mexico. The events leading up to the establishing of the village occurred between 1680 and 1699. In the years immediately following the Pueblo Revolt many of the Rio Grande Indians fled to the Hopi country. There is a ruin called *Kawaika*, the Keres name for Laguna, near Awatobi ruin a former Hopi village, which fact would seem to point to a residence among the Hopi of the Indians that later settled at Laguna. Between 1689 and 1697 a group of Keres Indians formerly belonging to the Pueblos of Santo Domingo, Sia, Cochiti, and Acoma built houses at Laguna and on July 4, 1699, the settlement was given the name San José de la Laguna by Gov. Pedro Rodriguez Cubero who received the allegiance of the Indians at the Pueblo at this time. In addition to the Pueblo these Indians built summer villages at some distance from Laguna. Since 1870 a number of permanent settlements have taken the place of these former temporary locations. These villages: Casa Blanca, Cubero, Hasatch, Paguate, Encinal, Santa Ana, Paraje, Tsiama, and Puertecito, in becoming permanent abiding places have tended to weaken the tribal ties and break down the community customs. The railroad, the influence of Americans who have married into the group, and the large number of the younger members of the Pueblo who have attended

American schools; have had the effect of loosening the tribal bonds which inevitably results in the disappearance of many of the distinctive characteristics of Pueblo Culture. About fifty years ago the last *cacique* died, the modernist element of the Pueblo preventing the election of a successor in the office which is the chief position in the theocratic organization of the Pueblo. This controversy caused a group of the conservatives to withdraw from Laguna and to move to Isleta where they became a part of the Pueblo organization of that village.

The mission church and friary at Laguna were built in the early part of the eighteenth century shortly after the founding of the settlement. The church is 105 by 23 feet, constructed of stone with massive walls, that are plain with few openings except in the façade which has four openings; a large doorway, a window six by four feet in the middle of the façade above the doorway, and two small openings in the extended firewall in which are hung the church bells. The façade fire-wall line is bisymetrical creating a pleasing architectural effect. The body of the interior of the church is decorated with a band design about four feet wide in which two motifs are repeated in red, yellow and green, heavy black lines forming the border. The walls of the chancel are embellished with paintings: on the north wall a representation of Santa Barbara; on the south wall a portrait of San Juan Nepomuceno with a cross in the right hand and a palm in the left. On the rear wall of the chancel the patron saint of the Pueblo, Saint Joseph, is portrayed, the picture being executed on a large elk's skin. Above this picture is a representation of the Trinity. On the ceiling of the chancel symbols representing the sun, moon, stars, and the rainbow are to be connected with the animistic conceptions of the Pueblo beliefs.

ACOMA PUEBLO

The Pueblo of Acoma has a unique location. It is built on the top of a butte having a surface of 10 acres and a height of 360 feet. It is within the drainage of the San José River, a western branch of the Puerco River, which flows eastward into the Rio Grande. Although Acoma is but fifty miles in a straight line due west of Isleta, it is seventy-seven miles from the latter Pueblo via the state highway.

In common with the other Pueblos, Acoma has a number of names applied to it. The Acoma (Keres) call their pueblo *Ako,* forms of which were used by the early explorers. In 1539 Friar Marcos de Niza mentioned a settlement called *Acus;* in 1540 Castañeda designated the Pueblo as *Acuco;* and in 1583 Antonio de Espejo used the name, which among the many has become the standard, Acoma. In the Tewa language it is known as *Ako Onywin,* meaning "Acoma Pueblo." The Sandia (Tiwa) speak of it as *Tuhlawai;* the Isleta (Tiwa) call it *Tilawei;* while the Jemez (Towa) know it as *Totyiagii.* The Zuñi (Zuñian) designate it as *Hakukia;* the Hopi (Shoshonean) call it *Aikoka;* and the Navaho (Athapascan) give the Pueblo the name *Hakoni.* The mission established between 1620 and 1629 was named San Estevan de Acoma. This name was changed to San Pedro shortly after 1699, but in the early part of the eighteenth century the old mission name was restored.

If the early population figures are to be trusted, the number of Indians belonging to the village has declined considerably since the seventeenth century. Although Vicente de Zaldivar stated that in January, 1598, he destroyed the Pueblo and dispersed the 2,000 people, Benavides, in 1629, placed the number at 2,000. In 1680 it was said to have 1,500 people, and in 1760 1,052. In 1805 there were but 731 persons belonging to the settlement, and in 1860, 523. In 1870 the figure was placed at 436. Since that time the census returns show an increase in the number, the census of 1910 placing it at 691.

The lands claimed by the pueblo consist of an area about twelve miles square. The village is located in the southeastern corner of this tract, the northern part of which includes about twelve miles of the San José Valley, where the principal agricultural lands of the pueblo are located. In the spurious Cruzate grant of 1689 there is a long discussion of the respective rights of the pueblos of Acoma and Laguna to the waters of the San José River. Since Laguna was not founded until 1699, a dispute on water rights could not have occurred, as this Cruzate grant states, prior to 1689. The lands claimed by the Acoma Indians were surveyed by the United States Government in 1877 for 95,791 acres and patented by the United States Land Office in the same year, November 19, 1877.

It seems probable that the present location of the Pueblo on the "rock" is the one occupied by these Indians when the Europeans first came into the country in 1540, although some doubt in this matter is created by the statement of Castañeda of the Coronado Expedition to the effect that a large amount of corn could be raised on top of the butte. Since there is neither soil nor water on the "rock," corn could not have been raised in the immediate vicinity of the Pueblo.

One of the many difficulties that Governor Oñate encountered in the founding of the Spanish settlements of New Mexico was armed conflict with the Acoma Indians. He left his headquarters at San Gabriel in October, 1598, with a part of his forces for Acoma, Zuñi, and the western country, leaving instructions that Juan de Zaldivar and thirty men should follow him. Oñate met the Acoma Indians and they agreed to accept Spanish authority, although the chief, Zutucapan, opposed submission and planned to kill the governor in a kiva, but Oñate refused to be trapped, peacefully leaving the Pueblo and journeying westward to the Zuñi country. Juan de Zaldivar arrived at Acoma in the early part of December, receiving a friendly reception, but on the morning of December 4th the Indians made a sudden attack, killing the leader and thirteen of his company, the others escaping. Luis de Velasco, the treasurer of the Oñate Expedition, and Friar Juan de Escalona, the comisario of the Franciscans, believed that the outbreak was due to the greed of the soldiers and that the Indians were justified in defending themselves. Villagran, one of Oñate's captains, stated that the hostilities were a part of the opposition to the Spanish headed by the chief, Zutucapan.

When Oñate received information of the Acoma uprising, he determined to return from Zuñi to San Gabriel for the purpose of taking action against them. As a result of a council of the military and religious leaders of the expedition, Vicente de Zaldivar and sixty men were sent to Acoma to punish the inhabitants. January 22, 1599, the company arrived before the Pueblo and demanded that the people surrender, which they refused to do. Zaldivar and eleven men succeeded in gaining the top of the mesa, and after a struggle that continued from the afternoon of the one day until the evening of the next, the Indians submitted. The punishment of these people, after they had surrendered, was so unfair that some of the officers condemned Oñate and his friends for their conduct in this matter. In 1614 the Spanish Government brought charges against Oñate, and one of those upon which he was convicted concerned Zaldivar's chastisement of the Acoma Indians. From the account of the punishment, one is led to believe that those inhabitants who were not killed in the struggle or during the aftermath of chastisement were either enslaved or moved to some other location. If that occurred, it is certain that a few years later these Indians returned to their Pueblo, for Benavides, in 1629, stated that the village consisted of 2,000 people.

Missionary work at the Pueblo was begun in 1629 by Friar Juan Ramírez, who upon arriving at Acoma found the Indians extremely hostile. A happy incident is said to have been the cause of establishing friendly relations between this friar and the Acoma people. At the time of his arrival at the foot of the "rock," a little girl fell over the edge of the 360-foot precipice, but contrary to the fears of the child's family, she was not killed, not even injured. Friar Ramírez picked up the little one and carried her up the steep pathway to the village. During the years that followed the friar converted the inhabitants of the Pueblo to Christianity, built the original church, which stood north of the present one, and constructed a trail by which horses could be brought up to the mesa.

Events, similar to those at other pueblos, occurred at Acoma during the years of the Pueblo Revolt and the Reconquest extending from 1680 to 1700. On August 10, 1680, the missionary, Friar Lúcas Maldonado was killed, and five days later Otermín, who was besieged in Santa Fe by the Tewa Indians, was informed that all the Spaniards in the Acoma district had been murdered. In the uprising of June 4, 1696, the Jemez Indians were assisted by the Acoma. De Vargas attempted to conquer the pueblo in August, 1696, and although he captured five of the hostiles and destroyed the cornfields of the village, he failed in his effort to bring the Pueblo under control. Three years later, on July 6, 1699, Governor Pedro Rodriguez Cubero received the submission of these Indians without armed conflict.

In the first years of the eighteenth century the present church and friary was built south of the older one that had been destroyed between 1680 and 1700. The walled *campo santo,* which is 200 feet square, in front of the church required the construction of a wall on the outer edge forty-five feet in height and the carrying of an immense amount of earth from below to fill in the enclosed space. To the north, adjoining the church, is the friary, in part two stories high, extending around three sides of a court. The walls of the church, which is 40 by 150 feet, were constructed of adobe and small flat stones and vary from four to ten feet in thickness. The façade of the church is characterized by two square windowless towers surmounted by belfries. There is no balcony nor portico as found in many of the mission churches. The only openings in the façade are the main doorway and a small window about ten feet above the entrance. The beams, twelve inches square and forty feet long, which support the flat roof, were probably brought from the San Mateo Mountains, twenty miles north of the village.

The pueblo stands on the north side of the mesa. It consists of three rows of three-story structures which are terraced up from the front to a solid back wall. In former times there were no doors in the ground floor rooms, which were used for storage purposes, but many doors have in recent times been added, although the living quarters are seldom found on the ground floor even today.

The annual festival of the Pueblo is held on Saint Steven's Day, September 2nd. The procession is formed on the plain which spreads out in all directions from the butte. It proceeds towards the village, being met at the foot of the mesa by the officials of the Pueblo, who lead the group to the church, where services are held. These are followed by the Indian tribal dances, similar to those conducted by the Cochiti at their annual festival.

Considering the common occurrence among the Pueblo Indians of the tradition of having occupied a number of Pueblos during a period of migration, it is not strange to find that the Acoma Indians claim that their ancestors occupied in succession the following pueblos north of their present location: *Kashkachuti, Washpashuka, Kuchtya, Tsiama, Tapitsiama,* and *Katzímo,* which is also called the Enchanted Mesa. A tradition concerning the latter, which is a butte 430 feet high, three miles north of Acoma, tells of former occupation and of a great storm that completely washed out the steep path leading up to the top of the butte.

An incident in the history of the pueblos of Laguna and Acoma relates to the painting of Saint Joseph which was stolen by the Laguna Indians from the Acoma church in order that they might share the good fortunes that they believed the possession of this picture had brought to the Acoma Indians. In 1857 the affair was decided in the District Court of New Mexico favorable to Acoma and the picture was restored to the original owners.

CHAPTER VII

THE HISTORIC AND PREHISTORIC PUEBLOS
(Continued)

PUEBLO RUINS BETWEEN THE RIO GRANDE AND ZUÑI

These ruins may be divided into several groups; those along the San José Valley, those north of McCarty in the neighborhood of San Mateo, ruins west of Laguna along the San José Valley as far as Grant, and the ruined Pueblos west and southwest of Acoma. Between the town of Rio Puerco and the mouth of San José River eleven small house ruins have been located on the west side of the Puerco River. On the east side of the same stream about one mile and a half from the town of Rio Puerco are two mounds, one 245 by 52 feet, the other ninety-eight feet square, which mark the site of a former Pueblo. About fifteen miles west of Laguna, near San José, there are fifteen small house ruins. In the same locality, near Cubero, there exists a typical Pueblo ruin. Near McCarty is a small mesa 115 feet in height called Mesita Redonda. On top and at the base of this butte are found ruins of former Pueblos. The one at the foot of the mesita on the south side is a more extensive ruin than the one on the summit, which consists of nineteen rooms. West of McCarty as far as Grant are found numerous small house ruins. Twenty miles north of McCarty, in the vicinity of San Mateo, a group of ruins are found. Pueblo Alto ruin is a short distance north of San Mateo. The ruin is 200 by 100 feet, with sufficient of the walls standing to show that it was several stories high. In the western part of the structure ruins are noticeable of a tower which is square on the outside and round on the inside. The pottery of the site is the same as the Chaco Canyon types. At the town of San Mateo the ruins of a stone Pueblo exist, while east and west of the settlement small house ruins are found. The ruins west and southwest of Acoma may have been built by people migrating from the north and east in the direction of the Little Colorado and the Gila Basin. Between Acoma and the lava beds and ten miles south of McCarty is a small basin two miles long called Las Ventanas, along the slopes of which are found twenty-five small house ruins and a Pueblo of peculiar plan, in that it was built on sloping ground and gave the appearance of a terraced structure, although each room rested on the side of the hill. It has been estimated that these ruins may have accommodated 600 people. At Cebollita, in a small valley south of Las Ventanas Basin, there is a small Pueblo ruin which appears to have been but one story in height. It is built around a court with a group of rooms in the middle of the same. The masonry workmanship is better than that in other ruins of the region. The Indian trail from Acoma to Zuni passed westward from Cebollita, crossing the lava beds to Inscription Rock, which is fifty miles due west of Acoma. Southwest of the Pueblo of Acoma, in the direction of the Gila Basin, are to be found numerous remains consisting of community houses built of stone and excavated caves closed by walls of masonry. Montezuma Mesa is the location of some of the best preserved ruins of this region.

ZUÑI PUEBLO

The Pueblo of Zuñi is on the National Park to Park Highway, 120 miles due west of Albuquerque and thirty miles south of Gallup, at an altitude of 4,184 feet.

The Zuñi name for their Pueblo is *Shiwinakwin,* meaning "the land that produces flesh." The Tewa and the Keres designation show the origin of the name Zuñi. The Tewa Indians call the village *Sunyi Onywin,* meaning "Zuñi Indian Pueblo." The Cochiti (Keres) call it *Sunyi Haasheteta,* meaning "Zuñi Indian Pueblo." The Jemez (Towa) speak of the Pueblo as *Sonigii.* The Hopi Indians call it *Sio.*

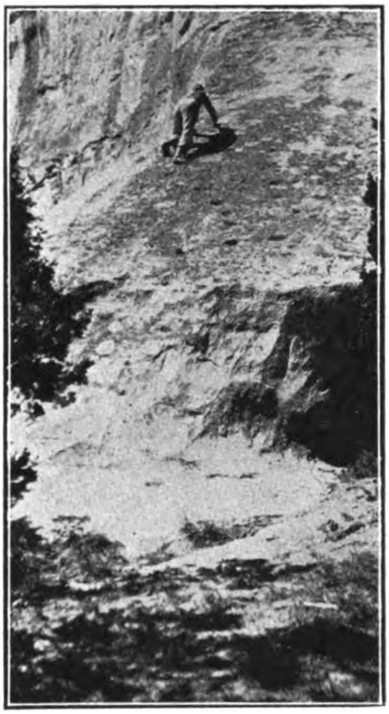
Zuñi is the largest of the New Mexico pueblos both in the number of inhabitants and in the amount of land controlled. Benavides, in 1629, placed the number of people at 10,000, which was a rough estimate that was doubtless incorrect. In 1680 the pueblo was said to contain 2,500 persons. The estimate of 664 inhabitants in 1760 seems to be too low, for in 1788 the population was placed at 1,617. Six enumerations have been recorded since 1805, and in each case the number given is not far from 1,500. The census of 1910 fixed the population of the Pueblo at 1,667.

The present Zuñi reservation, consisting of 215,040 acres, is the largest area of land controlled by a Pueblo. Zuñi was not included in the group of Pueblos whose land grants were confirmed by the United States Congress in 1858, although it possessed one of the so-called Cruzate grants of 1689, the forged nature of which has been discussed under Laguna and other pueblos in this account. The United States surveyor general for New Mexico in 1879 recommended the confirmation of a claim of four square leagues on the basis of the Cruzate grant, and an area was surveyed in 1880 amounting to 17,581 acres, but the United States Congress took no action, probably because the President of the United States had power under the Federal laws to set aside lands for the Indians by an Executive Order of the President, and had created a reservation for the Indians on March 16, 1877, the boundaries being those of the present reserve, which occupies the upper Zuñi Valley. A few years later, on May 1, 1883, an Executive Order of the President redefined the boundaries of the reserve in order to clarify the description of the lands designated by the Executive Order of March 16, 1877.

The name Seven Cities of Cibola was applied in the middle of the sixteenth century to the seven Pueblos occupied by the Indians of the Zuñian linguistic stock in the Zuñi Valley between the present Pueblo and Ojo Caliente, fifteen miles down the valley in a southwesterly direction. The location of these Pueblos, which have been in ruins since the seventeenth century, is as follows: *Hallonawa,* on the site of Zuñi of today, but built on both sides of the river whereas the present town is on the north side only; *Mattsakya* at the foot of the northwest corner of Thunder Mountain which is three miles southeast of Zuñi; *Kyakkima,* at the foot of the southwest corner of Thunder Mountain; *Pinnawa,* located three miles southwest of the present Zuñi; *Kyakuina,* to the west of Zuñi; *Hawwikku,* on the south bank of Zuñi River, fifteen miles southwest of Zuñi; and *Kianawe,* which is two miles from *Hawwikku.* Cibola, meaning "buffalo," is a Spanish word probably derived from the Zuñi name for their pueblo, Shiwinakwin. Stories of Seven Cities and Seven Caves, the former as mythical settlements made in the eighth or ninth century on an island in the Atlantic, the latter as a place occupied by the Indians of Mexico during their migration southward, were current in Mexico before 1535. These legends may have resulted in the belief that the Zuñi towns were the seven settlements of European and Mexican tradition.

Within a radius of thirty miles of the modern Pueblo of Zuñi 167 ruins have been examined and surface collections of potsherds made in the attempt to determine the relative age of the various ruins. The geographical distribution of these sites is as follows: in the neighborhood of Ojo Caliente, thirty-one; in the immediate vicinity of Zuñi, sixty; in the upper Zuñi Valley, seventy; on the plateau east of Zuñi Valley, twenty-two; and on the plateau south of the Zuñi Valley, fifteen. Thirty of these sites are Pueblo ruins with dimensions of more than 100 feet, and the remainder are either of the small house or slab house type.

The types of pottery found are very similar to those of the Tano region south of Santa Fe. The six wares are the following: corrugated, black, two color painted, three color painted, two color glazed, and three color glazed and painted, in order of their origin. From the potsherds found on the sites it has been proved that the slab houses are the oldest of the ruins, followed by the small house ruins, which in turn are followed by the Pueblos. These ruins have been classified into four groups on the basis of the pottery found, producing a relative time order of occupation for ruins of the respective classes. The oldest ruins, those in which the most recent style of potsherds found



TRAIL TO PREHISTORIC PUEBLO ON TOP OF INSCRIPTION ROCK

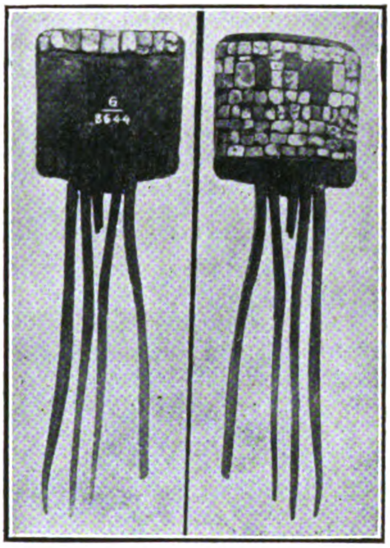
PUEBLO OF HAWWIKKU NEAR ZUÑI

is the black-and-white ware, consist of three small groups; at Ojo Caliente, Zuñi, and half way between Ramah and Zuñi. The second group includes sites where the latest type of pottery found was two and three color painted ware. In addition to the locations of the first, new areas were occupied in the vicinity of Nutrias, Pescado, Inscription Rock, and on the southern plateau. The center of the sites of the third group where glazed ware occurs was in the vicinity of Pescado, Ramah, and Inscription Rock. The locations of this group are fewer than the second group, but more numerous than the first. Glazed ware is found at but three sites between the mouth of Nutrias Creek and Ojo Caliente. The fourth period is that of late prehistoric and early historic times, in which the center shifts westward to the district between Zuñi and Ojo Caliente. There are no ruins of this period east of Zuñi and the total number is probably but six, although they were pueblos rather than small houses, as in the case of the first group. These generalizations seem to warrant the conclusions that the population shifted eastward and increased rapidly during the transition from the first to the second period. In the third period the lower valley was abandoned, the number of sites materially decreasing, while in the fourth period the upper valley east of Zuñi was abandoned and the lower valley in the neighborhood of Ojo Caliente was re-occupied, the population being consolidated in a few Pueblos, apparently with a much smaller population than in the second period, which appears to have been the one of greatest development.

The first man from Europe to arrive at the Zuñi towns was an African, Estevánico, who had been with Cabeza de Vaca. Friar Marcos de Niza was but a few days behind the Negro in the discovery. Estevánico was killed, and probably a number of the Indians who had accompanied him. Friar Marcos, on June 4. 1539, proceeded to within a short distance of the southernmost village, but fearing that he too might be killed and thus the information of the northern country be lost, determined to return to Culiacán. A year later, July 17, 1540, Coronado, leading the official expedition of the Viceroy, Antonio de Mendoza, appeared before Hawwikku, which surrendered only after an armed conflict. In April, 1542, Coronado passed a second time through the Seven Cities of Cibola as he was returning to Mexico, the Zuñi Indians treating him in a friendly manner. Later in the sixteenth century Zuñi was visited by Chamuscado in the latter part of 1581, by Espejo in the first part of 1583, and Oñate in December, 1598. A missionary was assigned to the Seven Cities of Cibola in the fall of 1598, but it was some years before the first missionaries resided at the Zuñi towns.

The earliest missionary work at the Pueblos was conducted by the friars Roque de Figueredo, Agustin de Cuellar and Francisco de la Madre de Dios, who built churches and friaries in 1629 at Hawwikku and Kianawe, which were two of the Zuñi Pueblos fifteen miles southwest of the present Pueblo. When the Indians killed Friar Francisco de Letrado in 1632 they fled to Thunder Mountain, as they did on several later occasions. The Apache attack on Hawwikku, October 7, 1670, resulted in the death of the missionary, Friar Pedro de Avila y Ayala, the destruction of the church, La Concepcion, the abandonment of Hawwikku and the end of the Pueblos in the vicinity of the present Ojo Caliente; Kianawe, a nearby Pueblo, seat of one of the first missions, having been abandoned before 1636.

Three Pueblos of the Seven Cities of Cibola were inhabited at the beginning of the Pueblo Revolt in 1680. One of the seven had been abandoned before 1598; two had become ruins, as we have seen above, in the Ojo Caliente district, and Pinnawa was a deserted village prior to 1680. Those remaining were the pueblos near Thunder Mountain and the one on the site of the later Pueblo of Zuñi, Hollonawa, which had a church dedicated to La Purification de la Virgen with two *visitas*, Mattsakya and Kyakkima. These Pueblos, after the death of Friar Juan de Bal, August 10, 1680, were deserted, and Old Zuñi, the pueblo now in ruins on the top of Thunder Mountain, was built. It was here that De Vargas found the Zuñi Indians November 11, 1692. They agreed at this time to submit to Spanish authority, but were involved in a later uprising in 1696. It was not until July 12, 1699, that Zuñi was brought under control by Governor Pedro Rodriguez Cubero. The present Pueblo of Zuñi was built when the Indians returned to the valley from their citadel on Thunder



WOODEN COMBS INLAID WITH TURQUOISE AND JET FROM HAWWIKKU

Mountain. The church was originally called La Purisima, but the name was later changed to Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe. In 1703 for the third time the Indians left their Pueblo, fleeing to Thunder Mountain, after having killed some Spanish soldiers. Two years later the Indians returned to the valley and the mission was again established.

Attacks upon the Pueblo by the Apache and the Navaho have been a constant menace through the centuries. In 1715 the governor of New Mexico sent a command of twenty-five soldiers to protect the Pueblo, the officer of the company reported that the Zuñi Indians were in constant fear of being attacked by the Apache. Almost a century later, 1807, Ygnacio Sotelo made a campaign against the Apache who had attacked Zuñi. Two years later the governor of New Mexico reported that the Apache Gileños had made an attack on Zuñi. In 1815 an attack of the Apache and the Navaho upon Zuñi was reported, and in 1821 Friar Antonio Cacho wrote to the governor of New Mexico, stating that he had left Zuñi with the consent of the custodian of the Franciscan Missions on account of danger from the Navaho attacks. The governor, July 28, 1821, requested that the mission of Zuñi should not be abandoned. During much of the nineteenth century no missionary was established at Zuñi, but in recent times the ancient mission field has been re-occupied. The ruin of the comparatively small mission church built at Zuñi in the early part of the eighteenth century is still standing. The pictures show that its façade combined the features of large towers with the balcony and portico between them.

SAN JUAN VALLEY RUINS IN NEW MEXICO

The San Juan Valley, which is an eastern branch of the Colorado River, lies partly in New Mexico, Colorado, Arizona and Utah. In these states there are Pueblos built in the cliffs, on the mesas, and in the valleys, by a people who lived in the region before the coming of the Shoshonean Utes into Colorado and Utah, and the Athapascan Navaho into Arizona and New Mexico. The San Juan River drains an area of 10,000 square miles in the northwestern part of New Mexico. The Aztec ruin, located one mile north of the town of Aztec in the valley of the Las Animas River, which is a northern branch of the San Juan, and the Chaco Canyon ruins, sixty miles due south of Aztec and about the same distance north of Gallup; may be classified among the important ruins of prehistoric Pueblo people.

Since 1916 excavations of the Aztec ruin have revealed the floor plan of this large Pueblo. The rooms are arranged around three sides of a court which is 180 by 200 feet. The outside dimensions of the structure are 359 by 280 feet. Round subterranean kivas were found to exist both in the court and among the rooms. One of the Kivas found in the court has been called the *House of the Great Kiva*, because there are sixteen rooms built around it. The diameter of the kiva proper is forty-eight

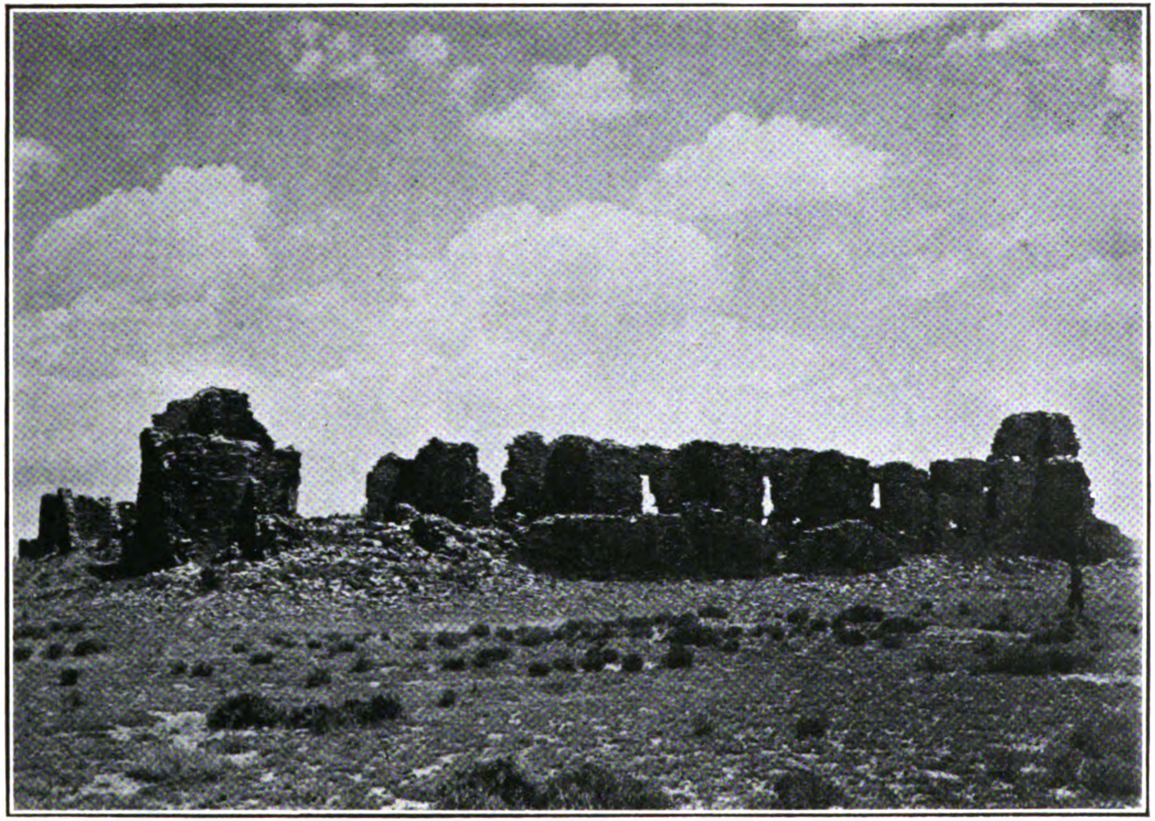


Photo by Museum Staff.

PUEBLO PINTADO RUINS

feet, the rooms have a width of six feet and six inches, making the total diameter sixty-one feet. The kiva is of the subterranean type while the rooms have their foundations on a level with the courtyard. The height of the building was probably ten feet. The *House of the Great Kiva* may have been the chief kiva of the community and the one in which the ceremonies pertaining to the entire Pueblo were held, while the smaller kivas were used by the various societies common to pueblo organization. The articles found in the sixty-nine rooms of the Pueblo that have been excavated are of the classes generally found in Pueblo ruins, namely: bone and stone implements, wooden artifacts, objects of vegetable and animal fibre, pieces of unburned clay, pottery, beads and ornaments.

Chaco Canyon is the upper stretch of the Chaco River. The area occupied by the ruins is about seven miles in length and one mile wide. In addition to twelve community house ruins, there are a number of small house sites, sanctuaries, stairways, trails and ditches that are a part of the evidence left by these former dwellers in the Navaho Desert. The important Pueblo ruins are along the north slope of the canyon with the exception of Peñasco Blanco which is on the mesa near the mouth of the canyon. About three miles up the canyon, Pueblo Bonito stands in the center of a group of five ruined Pueblos. These are: Pueblo Alto on the mesa; Kin Kletso, Pueblo Bonito and Chettro Ketl, along the slope of the canyon; and Pueblo del Arroyo on the floor of the narrow valley. Two miles farther up the canyon against the canyon wall is Hungo Pavi Pueblo ruin, and one mile and a half beyond is the ruined Pueblo of Una Vida. The last Pueblo ruin is Wijiji, a mile and a half above Una Vida. All of these sites present to view fragments of former walls, some standing only slightly above the ground, others to a height of five stories. Since 1840 these ruins have been a source of interest, but no information, except descriptions based on observation of the localities, was put forth until 1896. Since that time the Hyde Expedition, 1896-1900, the School of American Research Expedition, 1920-1921, and the National Geographic Society Expedition, 1921-1923, have excavated parts of two of the largest ruins situated in the heart of the group, namely: Pueblo Bonito and Chettro Ketl. The earliest and latest of these archeological enterprises have devoted their efforts to making known Pueblo Bonito, while the School of American Research of the Archaeological Institute of America directed its activities toward the discovery of the secrets of Chettro Ketl. The ground plans of these former Pueblos show them to have been great community houses that would cover about two modern city blocks. The length of the outside wall of Pueblo Bonito is 1,467 feet while that of Chettro Ketl is 1,540 feet. They are built around central courts. The number of ground floor rooms in each case is probably in the neighborhood of 500. Pueblo Bonito was built in the shape of a capital

D while Chettro Ketl resembles a capital E with a curved row of rooms connecting the long arms. In the case of Bonito the curved side is the back of the Pueblo and is nearest the canyon wall, while Chettro Ketl has the straight side toward the cliff, the curved side forming the front of the structure. Both ruins contain a large number of kivas, in Bonito there are thirty-two, many of which are in the courts, but some of them among the rooms. In both of the ruins, as at the Aztec ruin, one of the kivas is much larger than the others. These large kivas, the one at Chettro Ketl having a diameter of sixty feet, were probably the chief sanctuaries of the respective Pueblos.

THE RUINS OF THE SAN FRANCISCO, GILA AND MIMBRES VALLEYS IN SOUTHWESTERN NEW MEXICO

The San Francisco River in Catron County and the Gila River in Grant County drain the western side of the Mogollon mountain mass. The Mimbres River drains the southern part of the above mountain mass flowing from Fort Bayard to Deming and disappearing in the sands of Luna County. The San Francisco and the Gila valleys in New Mexico are the upper valleys of the Gila Basin while the Mimbres is east of the continental divide and is a part of the Rio Grande Basin. The ruins of the three valleys extend from old Fort Tularosa on the north southward, being found in the vicinity of Luna, Reserve, Silver City, Fort Bayard, Deming and many less well known places. The ruins of the San Francisco-Tularosa district of Catron County and the ruins of the Silver City-Deming region

Photo by Museum Staff.

ENTRANCE TO SQUARE KIVA, WESTERN SOCORRO COUNTY of Grant and Luna counties lie about 100 miles apart with the less important district of the upper stretches of the Gila as an intermediate group. The relative importance of these areas of ruins may be demonstrated by stating the number of sites that have been examined and described in each. From this point of view the San Francisco-Tularosa district is the most important, there being fifty-eight ruins consisting of Pueblos, village sites, cliff-dwellings, cave sanctuaries, sacred springs, and shrines. The Upper Gila district, in which six ruins have been examined comprising Pueblos, cliff-dwellings and caves, is the least important. The Silver City-Deming region has a total of twenty-six investigated sites, eleven in the vicinity of Silver City and fifteen in the neighborhood of Deming, which consist of pueblos, village sites, caves, and sacred springs. Many lesser ruins are known to exist in these districts.

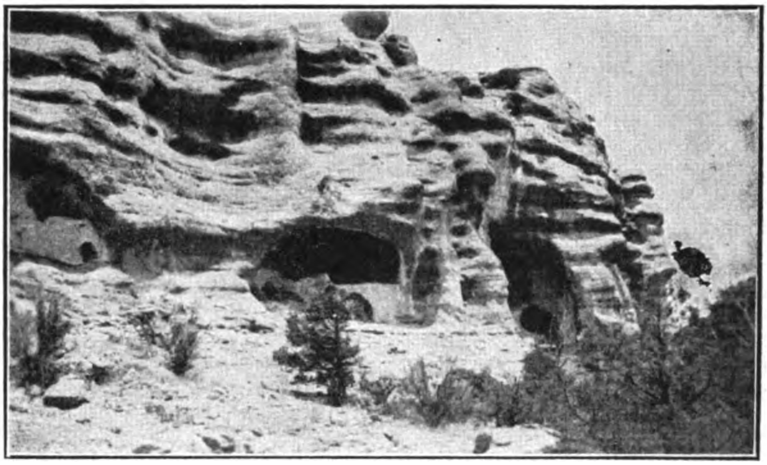


Photo by Museum Staff.

CAVE DWELLINGS—GILA NATIONAL MONUMENT

The Pueblo Indians of Southwestern New Mexico had become an extinct people before the Europeans entered the Gila Valley in 1539. Neither climatic conditions nor the absence of resources, nor attacks from nomadic invaders will account for their disappearance. Decrease in birth rate due to clan organization has been suggested as a probable cause for the depopulation of these regions. Some of the ruins show that additions to the Pueblos were made as the population increased and that later as the people became fewer deserted rooms were used for burial places, which seems to show that there was a gradual increase followed by a decline, in the population.

CHAPTER VIII

THE NOMADIC INDIANS OF NEW MEXICO

THE JUMANO INDIANS

The Jumano Indians probably consisted of several tribes of the Caddoan linguistic stock that ranged over Texas, Eastern New Mexico, and Northern Mexico. It is not probable that these Indians lived in Pueblos, although there are several references to Jumano Pueblos by Oñate in 1598 and Benavides in 1629. It is more likely that these so-called Jumano villages were the Manzano Piro Tiwa Pueblos of Tabirá, Abó and Tenabó. The Jumano range in 1629 was said to lie 250 miles eastward from the above named Pueblos. On July 22, 1629, a band of fifty Jumano Indians visited Isleta and requested that a missionary be sent to live among them. It seems that the Tabirá mission (Gran Quivira) was a center for the attempted conversion of these Indians during the first part of the seventeenth century. In 1650 and 1654 New Mexico explorers into Western Texas found tribes of Jumano living on the Colorado River. In 1683 Jumano Indians appeared at El Paso requesting missionaries, although their purpose was probably to gain Spanish protection against the Apache with whom they seem to have been at war, until the coming of the Comanche, in the eighteenth century, forced the Apache and the Jumano into an alliance. The plan of Juan Dominguez de Mendoza and Friar Nicolas Lopez, 1684, to establish missions among the Jumano in Southwestern Texas failed to meet the approval of the Viceroy of Mexico. In the last decade of the seventeenth century the Jumano range extended from El Paso along the Rio Grande to the lower valley of the Conchos and the Pecos, and easterward to the Guadalupe and the Colorado River in Texas. Between 1733 and 1771 the records show that the Jumano of Western Texas were closely allied with the Apache in a common struggle against the Comanche.

THE MANSO INDIANS

The Manso Indians occupied the Mesilla Valley north of El Paso at the time of the Oñate Expedition. They did not live in Pueblos but it seems that their culture traits were similar to those of the Pueblo Indians farther north. Benavides in 1630 suggested that four missionaries with a guard of fifteen or twenty soldiers be provided for the purpose of establishing a mission among these Indians. It was not until 1659 that the mission Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe was founded for the Manso and others of the El Paso district. The Spanish system of "reduction" is illustrated in this case, and it is one of the few instances of the operation of this policy so far as New Mexico is concerned for the reason that the Pueblo Indian being settled did not have to be "reduced" while the nomadic, warlike tribes could not be persuaded to submit to the "reduction" policy. Friar García de San Francisco y Zúñiga, who had labored at the mission of Senecú in 1630 and later founded the mission Nuestra Señora del Socorro, was the founder of the mission for the Manso and others. Ten Christian Indian families were taken from the Pueblo of Senecú to assist in converting the Manso and neighboring tribes. Prior to 1680 two additional missions were established in the El Paso district. The successful development of these missions which began with the conversion of the Manso played an important part in the Pueblo Revolt and the Reconquest between 1680 and 1692, because the missions of the El Paso district furnished a base where the Spanish settlers could provide themselves with food without retreating further south to the Upper Conchos Valley. The Manso as an Indian tribe have entirely disappeared, although a few families may exist at Isleta del Sur in Texas, ten miles below El Paso.

THE NAVAHO INDIANS

The Navaho range in the early part of the nineteenth century extended from the divide north of the San Juan Valley in Utah southward to the San Mateo Mountains in New Mexico. On the east their range bordered the lands held by the Pueblo Indians and extended westward to the San Francisco Mountains in Western Arizona.

The Navaho call themselves *Diné,* meaning "people," which is the common name applied to themselves by the Indians of the Athapascan linguistic stock whether their range is in Western Canada, Western Oregon, Western California or in the southwestern part of the United States. The name Navaho is of Tewa origin, meaning "great planted fields." Some ten miles west of the Santa Clara Pueblo there is a prehistoric ruin which the Tewa Indians give the name Nabahu. It may be that a band of Athapascan people gained control of lands in this area encroaching upon the settled Indians, or possibly the western Athapascan did live by agriculture. The Tewa Indians of the present call the Navaho by the name *Nywansaba,* meaning "Jemez Apache," because the Jemez lands border upon the Navaho country. The Jemez (Towa) Indians give the Navaho the name *Kyala,* while in the Pecos (Towa) language they are known as *Keretsa.*

There are no population statistics for the Navaho Indians prior to the middle of the nineteenth century. It is believed that they were an unimportant group in the middle of the sixteenth century when the Europeans entered the country. In the later centuries, however, particularly the second half of the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth they had become a powerful tribe and continually attacked the Pueblos and Spanish settlers. A census which was taken in 1869 enumerated 9,000, the number increasing to 11,868 in 1876. In 1890 the figure was placed at 17,000 and 1900 at 20,000. The census of 1910 fixed the population of the tribe at 22,455. These figures show that there has been a steady increase in the number of these people during the last fifty years.

The Navaho country even at the present time has a very small American population. The necessity for a settlement of the Indian problem grew out of the incessant attacks on the Zuñi and the Rio Grande villages by the Navaho rather than a demand for the country upon the part of the European people. Three attempts were made before 1860 to establish an eastern boundary to the Navaho country which would restrict them to lands far to the west of the Pueblo country. These treaties were made by Col. J. M. Washington, September 9, 1849, by Superintendent Merriwether, July 18, 1855, and Colonel Bonneville, December 25, 1858, but they did not end hostilities. The first reservation for the Navaho was set aside by an executive order of the President of the United States, January 15, 1864, at Bosque Redondo in the Pecos Valley in De Baca County. The Navaho had been particularly bothersome during the years 1861-1863 and it was planned to solve the Indian problem of New Mexico by concentrating the Navaho and Apache at one reservation forty miles square. After the military campaign of 1863 about 7,000 of the Navaho were moved to their new home. The Mescalero Apache were also located at Bosque Redondo, but they refused to remain, abandoning the reservation in 1865. The expense of feeding so large a number of Navaho as had been gathered at Bosque Redondo, the discontent of the Indians, and the absence of resources on the reservation were factors in bringing about the return of these Indians to their own country in 1868. One of the last of the treaties made by the United States with Indian tribes was on June 1, 1868, at Old Fort Sumner by Gen. William T. Sherman. The terms of this treaty were similar to those of many other treaties made by the United States in its attempts to solve the Indian problem in the west. The principal articles of the treaty provided for the cession to the United States of all claims to their tribal range, and for the creation of a reservation for the exclusive use of the Indians. The United States agreed to pay annuities for a period of years to assist them in becoming a settled people and to furnish them with instructions in agriculture, manual arts, medicine and general education. The Indians agreed to recognize the authority of the United States, to remain on their reservation, and to live at peace among themselves, with other Indians, and with people of European origin. The reservation as set aside consisted of about 3,500,000 acres, half of which was in the northwestern corner of New Mexico and half in the northeastern corner of Arizona. Additions have been made from time to time to this original reservation until the present reserve includes in round numbers 5,000,000 acres. These were made by executive orders of the President of the United States, October 29, 1878, January 6, 1880, and May 17, 1884.

The Navaho Indians were first mentioned by Zárate Salmerón and Benavides in 1629. During the seventeenth century they increased in numbers probably through adoption of groups from other peoples as well as by captives taken in attacks on weaker tribes and on the settled Indians of the Pueblos. Several results followed from this increase in the number of Navaho. They became more dangerous in the eighteenth century to the Pueblo Indians and the Spanish settlers; they became the possessors of large flocks of sheep which they gained gradually in their forays against the Rio Grande Valley people, and they became weavers of blankets, an art which they no doubt learned from the Indian captives from the Pueblos. The Navaho also became very mixed in physical type and similar in culture to the Pueblo Indians, although they retained the Athapascan language, which is also the language of the Apache. In the early part of the eighteenth century attacks upon the Pueblos of Santa Clara, San Ildefonso and Jemez had to be met not only by the inhabitants of those villages but by the Spanish government. There was always a strong desire among the Franciscans to establish missions among the nomadic peoples who lived on all sides of the Pueblo country, because they always offered a field of new conversions which was the fundamental idea of the Franciscan Order. This desire was often curbed by the government, because it could not furnish protection for mission stations located at distant points. All attempts in the seventeenth and the eighteenth century failed. In 1746 the most important attempt was made on the frontier between the Pueblo country and the Navaho range at Cebolleta ten miles north of the Pueblo of Laguna—where several hundred Navaho agreed to settle. The process of "reduction," as the establishing of the Indians in settled homes was called, did not find favor with the Navaho and although a second mission was established at Encinal in 1749, the field was abandoned in 1750. In recent times the Franciscan Friars have established a mission and a school at Saint Michaels, Arizona.

THE APACHE

The Apache ranged over a much larger area than the Navaho. Prior to the middle of the sixteenth century they lived east of the Rio Grande in New Mexico and Texas, but later moved westward into present Arizona and southward into what is now Mexico.

The Apache call themselves *Diné*, meaning "people." The term Apache is probably of Zuñi origin, meaning "enemies." In the Tewa language they are called *Sabe*. The Jicarilla Apache are referred to as *Tunsabe*, meaning "basket Apache." The Llanero Apache are designated as *Akonsabe*, meaning "plains Apache." The Mescalero Apache are called *Psabe*, meaning "mescal Apache." The Jemez (Towa) speak of the Apache as *Togowyala*, meaning "eastern Athapascan."

It is not possible to determine the population of the Apache who formerly ranged over the present New Mexico. This is due to the fact that the Apache tribes of the southwestern part of the state, the Gila, the Mogollon and the Mimbres, commonly known as the Southern Apache, have been located with other Apache tribes on the San Carlos and White Mountain reservations in Southeastern Arizona and designated merely as Apache. The total population of the Apache of Arizona and New Mexico in 1910 was 6,258. There are two Apache groups in New Mexico, namely: the Jicarilla and the Mescalero. The Jicarilla in 1870 numbered 788; in 1890 the population was 808; and 743 in 1910. The Mescalero in 1885 numbered 462; in 1895, 453; in 1900 the population was 482; while in 1910 it was reported as exactly the same as in 1895.

Reservations were established for the Apache as was done for the nomadic people in other parts of the United States. In the period between 1860 and 1874 three reserves were set aside in the southeastern part of the state for the Southern Apache, but in each case the location was abandoned, the Indians being eventually placed on the San Carlos and White Mountain reservations in Arizona. The first of these was the Gila Reserve near the present town of Gila in Grant County which was requested by the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, May 14, 1860, but never officially established. The Indians abandoned the location in 1861 and it was never re-occupied. The second reservation for the Southern Apache was established November 9, 1871, by an executive order of the President, along the headwaters of the Tularosa River in present Catron County, but the Indians would not remain at the location and the United States did not see fit to force them to do so. As a result of the refusal of the Indians to occupy the site, the lands were restored to the public domain by an executive order of the President dated November 24, 1874. A third attempt to settle the Southern Apache was made April 9, 1874, when a reserve was set aside in the Alamosa Valley in Sierra County, by an executive order of the President. The limits of the reserve were changed by an executive order December 21, 1875. This reservation, like the two that preceded it, failed to solve the problem of furnishing the Southern Apache with a permanent home. The Indians refused to remain on the reservation and as a result the Commissioner of Indian Affairs recommended that the lands be restored to the public domain which was done by an executive order of the President August 25, 1877.

A different story is to be told in the case of the Mescalero Apache Reservation. The original plan was to place the Mescalero Apache with the Navaho on the Bosque Redondo Reservation but this policy, although attempted, failed in 1865 when the Mescalero left the location. The Mescalero Apache Reserve was first established by an executive order May 29, 1873, in the northeastern corner of the present Otero County. The reservation was changed by redefining its limits in the executive orders dated February 2, 1874, October 20, 1875, May 19, 1882, and March 24, 1883. The present land of these Indians are those provided for in the executive order of March 24, 1883.

The Jicarilla Apache Reservation was first established in the vicinity of the town of Aztec by an executive order of the President of the United States, March 25, 1874, but the Indians refused to occupy the location because it was not within their tribal range and because of the fact that it joined the Navaho Reservation. This resulted in the restoration of the reserve to the public domain by an executive order of July 18, 1876. The northern half of the present Jicarilla Reservation lying west of Tierra Amarilla in Rio Arriba County was created by an executive order dated September 21, 1880. On March 15, 1884, an executive order was issued canceling this reservation, but on February 11, 1887, an executive order was proclaimed which brought the reservation back into existence with slightly changed boundaries. Since 1900 the size of the reserve has been more than doubled by an extension southward.

Prior to 1886 reservations had been provided for all of the Apache of New Mexico and Arizona. The reserves had been created by executive orders of the President rather than under the method of making treaties with the Indians as had been the custom before the Act of Congress, March 3, 1871, which discontinued that method of dealing with the natives. Under the treaty system the Indians had agreed to cede all rights in lands claimed, not included in their reservations, to the United States but no provision for cession existed under the executive order plan. In order to completely extinguish the Indian title to lands outside the reservations, the United States Congress passed an act October 1, 1886. This act defined the tribal range of the eastern bands of Apache as the lands lying east of the Rio Grande in New Mexico and extending into Western Texas; and the range of the western bands of Apache as including Western New Mexico and Eastern Arizona exclusive of the claims of the Navaho. By this act the tribal range of the Eastern and Western Apache was taken possession of by the United States.

Apache were first referred to by Oñate in 1598. The name as used in later times applied to a large number of bands that had no connection with each other and also to the Navaho who were often spoken of as the Navaho Apache. From the historical references to the Apache trouble with them occurred along the mountains east of the Rio Grande from the Sangre de Cristo Range on the north to the Guadalupe Mountains on the south, and west of the Rio Grande in the southwestern part of the State extending into Southern Arizona. The Eastern Apache were called Vaqueros, or Querechos, by the explorers of the sixteenth century. These included those groups later known as Jicarilla, Faraon, Lipan, Llaneros and Mescalero. It is probable that these Apache were allied with the Pueblo Indians in their attempted revolts before 1680 and in the successful one of that date. Their hostility to the Pueblo Indians was not less, however, on account of this alliance. The abandonment of widely separated Pueblos as those of the Manzano Mountains, the Piro Rio Grande, and Hawwikku at Zuñi, in the latter part of the seventeenth century due to Apache attacks shows the persistence of the enmity of these nomads for the settled Indians. The records relate continuous difficulties with the Eastern Apache from the days of De Vargas, whose death occurred during a campaign against the Faraon Apache in 1705, down to the establishment of the Mescalero Reservation in 1873 and the Jicarilla Reservation in 1887. It may be doubted whether the Western Apache gave more trouble than the Eastern Apache prior to the American occupation of New Mexico but they were more hostile after the occupation which was not due to any difference in attitude but rather to larger numbers. The Western Apache, who lived in New Mexico, were the Gila, the Mimbres and Mogollon, against whom in the latter part of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth the Spanish government conducted a long series of campaigns. During a part of this time the Navaho aided the Spaniards as Indian allies as did the Comanche in the same period in the Indian wars against the Eastern Apache. Missionaries as pacifiers of the Apache failed due to the plundering, wandering life that these people led. Military campaigns also failed to prevent attacks by these propertyless people upon the property of the Pueblo Indians and the Spaniards. In the early part of the American period the United States Government was not noticeably more successful in dealing with the Western Apache than the Spaniards had been in their century-long struggle with them. When the lines of the Santa Fe Railroad and the Southern Pacific Railroad met at Deming, it became only a matter of time when the struggle between natives and Europeans, and between nomadic and settled Indians that had continued without a decision since 1600, would culminate with the submission of the Apache to the reservation policy of the United States. Between 1870 and 1885 a series of attempts were made to restrict the Western Apache to reserves in Southeastern Arizona, but some of the most capable leaders found reservation life unbearable. In the spring of 1883 under the leadership of Gerónimo and

Chato, two bands of Apache raided the settlements of Arizona, New Mexico and Northern Mexico. A treaty had been made with Mexico in 1882 .which allowed the forces of either nation to cross the international boundary line in the pursuit of hostile Indians. General Crook followed these bands to their stronghold in the Sierra Madre Mountains of Mexico and captured the hostile group including the leaders, but this was not to be the end, for in the spring of 1885 a party of fifty warriors headed by Gerónimo left the reserve. General Crook immediately pursued them and brought the Apache wars to a close, the most warlike of the leaders being removed to Fort Sill, Oklahoma.

COMANCHE INDIANS

The Comanche spoke the same language as the Ute both belonging to the Shoshonean linguistic stock. They seem to have been pressed southward by the northern tribes of the Great Plains in the first part of the eighteenth century. This pressure brought them into conflict with the traditional enemy of the Spaniards, the Eastern Apache, and as a result the Spanish government was friendly to the Comanche when the latter could be used against the Apache but hostile to them when they attack friendly Apache, the Pueblos, or Spanish settlements. In 1724 the governor of New Mexico held a council of war for the purpose of discussing the advisability of a campaign against these Indians who had attacked some friendly Jicarilla Apache. As early as 1735 a time was set for trade with the Comanche and those trading at other times were prosecuted by the government. In one case the offender lost the buffalo hides that he had procured from them. A campaign against the Comanche was conducted in 1742 which failed to pacify these Indians who followed the Spanish attack by counter attacks on Taos in 1748; Pecos and Galisteo in 1751. The attack upon Galisteo occurred November 3, 1751, and was met by the Galisteo Indians assisted by ten Spanish soldiers. The governor of New Mexico, November 11, 1751, with a force consisting of fifty-four soldiers, thirty Spanish settlers, and eighty Indians pursued the Comanche as far as the Arkansas River and forced them to agree to terms of peace, but this was not permanent. In August, 1779, Governor Juan Bautista de Anza conducted a campaign in which the famous Comanche chief, Cuerno Verde, was killed. In 1783 there was a peace treaty with them after which they were generally at peace with the Spaniards. In 1792, 1797, and 1810 they allied with the Spaniards in attacks upon the Faraon, Lipan, and Mescalero, bands of Apache, whose range extended from the Sandia to the Sacramento Mountains. Although Spanish government in New Mexico had dealings with the Comanche continuously after 1700, the principal range of their bands was the plains of Kansas and Texas. After the Civil war the nomadic life of these people was brought to a close and they were located between 1867 and 1875 in the southwestern part of Indian Territory, at the present Kiowa Agency in Oklahoma.

THE UTE INDIANS

The Ute Indians belong to the Shoshonean linguistic stock which includes the Shoshoni of Eastern Oregon and Southern Idaho, the Comanche of the Plains, and the various bands of Ute who ranged over Nevada, Utah, Colorado, and the northwestern part of New Mexico. It is probable that only a few of the southern bands of Ute came into contact with the Pueblos and the Spaniards. This contact took place in that area lying between Abiquiu in the Chama Valley and Taos in the Rio Grande Valley. There are few if any references to relations between the people of New Mexico and these Indians in the seventeenth century but from the beginning of the eighteenth century the Ute became a factor in the Indian problem of the Spanish settlers. In 1704 it was reported that the Ute and the Apache had joined a conspiracy with the Pueblo Indians for the purpose of driving the Spanish people out of New Mexico. As early as 1719 a campaign was ordered by the governor of New Mexico against the Ute for depredations upon the settlements of the upper Rio Grande Valley. This did not bring an end to the raids of these Indians for in 1736 there were complaints that they were stealing stock. In August, 1747, the western frontier *genizaro* settlement, Abiquiu, was attacked by the Ute and as a result the location was abandoned, but re-occupied a short time later. An order was issued, September 13, 1778, which prohibited Spaniards and New Mexico friendly Indians from visiting the Ute country for trade purposes but this did not prevent expeditions, as is shown by the fact that individuals were prosecuted in 1783, 1785 and 1797 for carrying on illegal trade with the Ute Indians. The relations of these people with New Mexico continue into the nineteenth century to be those of depredations, campaigns, and peace treaties. It was not until the period between 1870 and 1890 that these tribes were placed on reservations, by the United States, in Colorado and Utah.

CHAPTER IX

THE INDIAN POLICY OF SPAIN AND THE UNITED STATES

SPANISH INDIAN POLICY

Spain in the sixteenth century conquered, pacified and settled, in an incomplete way, the New World from Florida and New Mexico on the north to Chile and Argentina on the south. If this vast empire was to be profitable to Spain its resources must be developed but Spain did not have the population to supply the labor for such an undertaking. The labor supply must come either from the newly developed field of Africa or from the new country. In the West Indies the system of tribute collecting was first used but this did not prove successful because under it the Indian's labor was not supervised. In 1503 the *encomienda* system was established in the West Indies, later spreading to the continents and although in 1543 the "New Laws" provided that the system should be abolished with the life of those holding under it, grants of *encomienda* continued to be made until the eighteenth century. The protests that arose against the abolition of the system resulted in the repeal of the important parts of the "New Laws" in 1545. The *encomienda* system provided that the Indians should be gathered in villages; that they should pay a fixed sum to the King which should be collected by a protector called the *encomendero,* for whom they should work for wages. Thus the King's profit and the *encomendero's* income depended upon making the Indian work. The *encomendero* was required to Christianize and civilize the Indians at the same time that he exploited them for his own benefit as well as for the royal treasury. This system worked among two types of Indians, namely: those who lived in settled homes and those who were easily conquered. Among the more virile of the nomadic tribes, war was inevitable because these Indians were in some cases unconquerable, and carried on raids upon the property of the settled people.

In New Mexico the Spaniards found a population of settled Indians surrounded by nomadic peoples. The latter do not appear to have been a serious menace to the Pueblos in 1598 but in later times the situation was very different. During the latter part of the seventeenth century a number of Pueblos were destroyed and others seriously affected by Navaho and Apache attacks. In the eighteenth century the Comanche and Ute increased the difficulties of Indian control.

The legal status of the Indian was established early in the sixteenth century. Under Spanish law he was considered a ward of the Crown. In order to protect the legal rights of these minor vassals of the King, the office of Protector of the Indians was created by the decree of Philip II, dated January 10, 1589. In the Spanish Archives of New Mexico there are many references to actions brought by the Protector of the Indians in the name of the Pueblos. These officials had no power to interfere in the internal affairs of the Indian villages. The lands of the natives, whether in the case of a "reduction," that is; a group of nomadic Indians gathered in a village, or of a pueblo, were held in common under a possessory right, although the village was often granted in *encomienda* to some Spaniard.

The system of *encomienda* for the exploitation of the Indians was probably not very generally developed in New Mexico. Although grants of *encomienda* were made by Oñate to the soldiers and settlers that accompanied him in 1598 when the country was first occupied, and complaints were made in 1620 that the *encomenderos* mistreated the Indians under them, yet the resources of the land in agriculture and mineral wealth were not sufficient to create any large demand for Indian labor. In an order of the viceroy to the governor of New Mexico dated February 5, 1621 it was provided that grants of *encomienda* should be made only for the care of cattle; that the Indians should be paid one real (12½ cents) per day; that they should be taken from the nearest Pueblo; that not more than eight of every hundred should be granted in *encomienda;* and that Indian women should not be given in *encomienda* to residents of the Villa of Santa Fe.

The Franciscan mission was a frontier institution of first importance. In New Mexico it became not only the means of converting the Indians of the Pueblos but also a permanent method of controlling the villages. The mission was recognized as a means of holding a frontier country but it was of a temporary nature. The missionary work was limited to a period of ten years. At the end of that time the friars were expected to give way to the secular clergy, the parish taking the place of the mission, but secularization of the New Mexico missions did not take place until the early part of the nineteenth century. The missionary labors of the Franciscans began in New Mexico in the fall of 1598 and by 1630 a large number of mission churches had been built. The seventeenth century missionaries attempted to stamp out the native religious practices of the Pueblos and this was probably an important factor in the discontent that led to the complete failure of the Spanish Indian policy in New Mexico in 1680. After the Reconquest in the last decade of the seventeenth century, both the Pueblo Indians and the Spaniards found it to their advantage to be more moderate in their conduct toward each other which was due to the growing power of the Navaho and the Apache, and the raids of the Ute and Comanche.

The rights of the Pueblo Indians were respected in land matters and in religious practices. The seemingly paradoxical compromise that at present exists became the basis for continuation of control through the mission organization. The Indian voluntarily accepted Christianity which became an additional means of influencing forces of nature that might do him good or harm. He therefore refused to replace his own religious practices with those of Christianity but added the latter to his native customs and in his mind there is no conflict in this combination of the tribal conception and the individualistic belief. The Spaniard also, to the best of his ability, protected the Pueblos when they were attacked by the nomadic tribes. In return the Indians of the Pueblos submitted to Spanish authority, there being no revolt after 1700.

The nomadic Indians in the very nature of the situation were enemies of the Spaniards and the Pueblos. As the four nomadic tribes increased in strength during the eighteenth century they made incessant raids upon the Spanish and Pueblo settlements. The nomads coveted the property of the settled area and although at times they adopted the method of trade in acquiring the things that they wanted yet the more direct method of taking the property was more often used. Indian missions as a means of Christianizing, civilizing, and "reducing" these groups were suggested early in the seventeenth century by Benavides but the failure of attempts to persuade or force these virile people to change their manner of living resulted in the abandonment of the mission as an institution for the control of these groups. When the nomadic tribes attacked the settlements they were met by the Pueblo Indians, Spanish soldiers and settlers and were often followed long distances from the Rio Grande in an attempt to force them to make a lasting peace. Peace treaties were made and presents given to the leaders of the invaders. Instead of collecting tribute, the Spaniards were in a position that they had to pay the nomads in order to save themselves from extinction. Spanish policy, in relation to the unsettled Indians, also attempted to solve the problem of protection by playing one tribe off against another. The Comanche and the Apache were enemies. The Spanish in the latter part of the eighteenth century made peace with the Comanche and encouraged them with presents to make war upon the Eastern Apache. Spanish Indian policy so far as the nomad tribes were concerned failed to overcome the barrier placed by these predatory people in the way of a further advance of Spanish settlements.

INDIAN POLICY OF THE UNITED STATES

When the United States acquired Texas, Oregon, and the Mexican cession in 1845, 1846, and 1848 respectively it was confronted with a new Indian problem. Prior to these extensions in territory conflicts with the nomads had resulted in allowing them to occupy a large part of the country between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains. Indian Territory had been created for the tribes of the Old Southwest and the Old Northwest. The Great Plains area from Texas to Canada was practically an Indian country. It had not been officially declared such but the Indian title had not been extinguished and no settlements were legal within the region. Settlers moved into the Willamette Valley in Oregon between 1842 and 1850. In the summer of 1849 migrations to California across the Great Plains brought the American settler into contact and conflict with the Indians of the Pacific Coast, the Rocky Mountains, and the Great Plains. The rapid increase of population in these areas between 1850 and 1890 afforded a solution for the Indian problem that in the case of New Mexico had existed unsolved since 1598. When the Industrial Revolution in the form of the steam engine entered the western country in the period immediately following the Civil war, it was to be only a matter of a few years until the successful resistance to settlement on the part of the natives was to become a thing of the past. Overwhelming power solved the Indian problem of the West.

The United States adopted a policy of forbidding settlers in a country where the Indian title to the land had not been extinguished. This was necessitated by the inability of the government to protect the settlers in such areas. In New Mexico this policy could not be applied since the Mexican population was already established in the country when it was acquired by the United States. The Pueblo Indians with their settled homes also created a new problem and one that was not solved at an early time. It was the nomadic tribes, the Navaho, Apache, and Ute that necessitated a large military establishment before they could be persuaded that attacks upon settlements would have to cease and that they would have to restrict their activities to the limitations of a reserve.

The Indian problem in New Mexico, when Stephen Watt Kearney arrived with his army of occupation in the summer of 1846, was centuries old. The growing power of the nomadic tribes in the latter part of the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth century seemed to be slowly exhausting the resistance of the Pueblo Indians and the Mexicans. Within the comparatively short period of forty years, that is; by 1886, Indian attacks upon settlements had become a thing of the past, and the nomads had been restricted to reservations.

Briefly, this settlement came about in the following manner: Kearney in his proclamation at Las Vegas, August 14, 1846, made the first statement concerning Indian policy in New Mexico in which he promised the people of the newly acquired territory that the United States would protect them from the depredations of the nomadic tribes. Expeditions were sent to the Ute at Abiquiu and the Navaho at Cebolleta, in the fall of 1846 and the first of a series of peace treaties was made. The United States Senate did not ratify these agreements made before the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. The Navaho continued to attack settlements and a second expedition was sent into their country. The peace treaty which was made was ratified by the Senate and proclaimed by the President of the United States, September 24, 1850. A treaty with the Ute was signed December 13, 1849, but was not ratified by the Senate probably on account of the failure of the Indians to keep the peace. On July 7, 1850, a treaty of peace was signed by the chiefs of the Pueblos but it was not ratified by the Senate. A peace treaty with the Eastern Apache was concluded April 2, 1851, which also failed of ratification. July 1, 1852, a treaty of peace was made with the Apache of southwestern New Mexico which was ratified by the Senate March 23, 1853.

These peace treaties differed from cession treaties in many respects. The former usually preceded the latter and were generally made with tribes for the purpose of establishing the jurisdiction of the United States and determining the tribal range of the Indians concerned. The cession treaties so far as the West was concerned were first adopted in Oregon and included a cession of land; the creation of a reservation from a part of the lands claimed by the Indians; and definite provisions for aiding the Indians in becoming a self-supporting people. The failure upon the part of the Indians to abide by the terms of the peace treaties made between 1846 and 1853 and the absence of any pressing demand by settlers for the lands ranged over by the nomadic tribes of New Mexico probably account for the fact that no treaties of cession with the Navaho and Apache were made prior to the Civil war. A reservation for the Southern Apache was set aside in the Gila Valley near the present Town of Gila in 1860 but it was never occupied.

The Pueblo Indian land question was the most important problem so far as this part of the population was concerned. When the United States surveyor general for New Mexico was appointed under an Act of Congress creating the office, he was instructed to report on the land rights of the Pueblos. Investigations were carried on by the surveyor general in 1856 and upon the basis of his recommendation, the United States Congress December 22, 1858, confirmed to fifteen Pueblos the land claimed by them. The four Pueblos that did not receive lands at this time were Santa Ana, Laguna, Acoma, and Zuñi. Confirming lands to the Pueblo Indians did not settle the problem for parts of these areas were claimed by Mexicans and as early as 1850 suits had been brought to settle the conflicting claims.

In 1864 a plan was adopted for the colonization of the Navaho and the Eastern Apache in present De Baca County, in the Pecos Valley. The policy involved the moving of the Navaho, who numbered more than 7,000, from their range into that of the Eastern Apache, and into a country where they could not support themselves. The Apache abandoned the reserve in 1865, and by 1868 the United States discovered that the Navaho could not be made a contented, self-supporting people in their new home. Lieut.-Gen. William T. Sherman was sent to Fort Sumner to find a solution for the problem. On June 1, 1868, a cession treaty was made which after ratification by the Senate was proclaimed by the President of the United States August 12, 1868. Congress acted in this case more promptly than usual. This treaty is the only cession treaty in the history of the relations of the United States with the Indians of New Mexico. The terms provided for the cession of the Navaho lands to the United States, for a reservation of a part of the cession for the exclusive use of the Indians, for annuities to assist the Navaho in establishing settled homes, and for assistance in the form of instructors in agriculture, carpentering, general education and medicine. The treaty was in all respects similar to a large number made in the West between 1853 and 1871.

The policy of the United States in the matter of making treaties with Indian tribes was changed by an Act of Congress passed March 3, 1871. This law provided that no more treaties should be made with Indian tribes, that the President should be authorized to set aside reservations that became necessary, by Executive Orders, and that the Indian title should be extinguished by Acts of Congress declaring that the United States had taken possession of the tribal ranges.

Under this plan three groups of Apache, the Southern, the Mescalero and the Jicarilla, were provided with reservations. The attempt to place the Southern Apache on a reservation in the Tularosa Valley, in present Catron County, failed, the Indians refusing to occupy the location. This reservation was set aside by Executive Order dated November 9, 1871. A second reservation was established in the Alamosa Valley by an Executive Order April 9, 1874. Again the Indians were not kept on the reserve and it was cancelled August 25, 1877. Between 1883 and 1886, after a series of campaigns against the Southern Apache of New Mexico and the Apache tribes of Arizona, these Indians of Southwestern New Mexico were placed on the reservations in Southeastern Arizona known as the San Carlos, and the White Mountain Reserve, where they live at the present time. The Mescalero Reservation was originally set aside in the northeastern part of present Otero County by an Executive Order May 29, 1873. The boundaries of this reserve have been changed but its size and general location have remained but slightly altered. These Indians have been under Government control since that date. The Jicarilla were given a reserve in Rio Arriba County by the Executive Order of September 21, 1880. The reservation has been more than doubled in size since 1890. When the Apache wars were over and the Indians on reservations, the Congress of the United States passed an act, October 1, 1886, in which the boundaries of the range of the Eastern and Western Apache were defined, and in which it was declared that the United States thereby took possession of all the lands claimed by these Indians except those set aside as reservations.

The claims of individuals to lands which are a part of the Pueblo grants have recently been brought before the Congress of the United States for settlement. As mentioned above, this problem existed when the United States acquired the Mexican Cession. Cases might be cited of land disputes between Spanish settlers and the Pueblo Indians in the eighteenth century growing out of the existence of Spanish settlements within the land claim of the Indians. In a dispute of this nature which was brought before the governor of New Mexico, he stated that right was on the side of the Pueblo and he advised that a compromise be made which would be satisfactory to both the Indians and the Spaniards. It was common for Pueblos to purchase grants in the vicinity of their own lands which had been made originally to Spanish settlers. Although the Pueblos were allowed to buy additional lands, they could not sell any that they had acquired. When the Republic of Mexico came into existence, the Indians, both the Pueblos and the nomadic tribes, were declared citizens with civil and political rights. In the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo the full rights of Mexican citizens were recognized. The United States agreed that those who wished to retain their Mexican citizenship should signify their intention within a year after the date of the ratification of the treaty, May 30, 1848. Needless to say, the Pueblo Indians expressed no desire to retain their Mexican rights and as a result they became American citizens. They have been declared such by the Federal Court of New Mexico, but they have never been recognized as citizens of the United States and have never voted nor paid taxes.

The Spanish Government and the United States Government considered the Indian a ward. The Mexican Government complicated the situation, which would have otherwise been simple, by declaring the Indians citizens. This difficulty might have easily been avoided had a provision been included in the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo that the term citizen did not apply to Indians, but this was not done. The situation was further complicated by the policy of the United States when it confirmed and patented the grants of the Pueblos in 1858 and 1864, respectively. The problem became further involved by the decision of the United States Supreme Court in the Joseph case, in 1876, in which it was held that the Pueblo Indians had a complete title to their lands and could therefore dispose of them to whomsoever they pleased. This decision was, contrary to all former policy of the United States, which never recognized other than a right of occupation. Had the original policy been followed in the matter of the Pueblo lands as it was in the case of the nomadic tribes of New Mexico, much of the later difficulty and reversal of decisions might have been avoided. The argument that the Pueblo Indians were essentially different from other Indians has been thrown into the discard. They had their settled homes and the lands they claimed should have been set aside as reservations, but there was no cause for a complete change in policy toward them, simply because they happened to live in villages. It is true that there was a conflict growing out of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, but the strange thing is that the Indians' right to hold lands with complete title has been recognized over complete periods, and yet the basis of the right, citizenship, has not been given him. A change which brought the policy in line with the general policy of the United States was made in the Felipe Sandoval case in 1915, when the United States Supreme Court decided that the Pueblo Indians were wards of the Federal Government. Therefore, they had no right to sell their lands and, since no statute of limitation operates against a minor, all titles to lands purchased from the Indians were invalid. The Pueblos under the new ruling might resume control of lands that had been deeded in fair sale, and which under the former decision of the Supreme Court had been legally sold. The only remedy for the protection of purchasers of Pueblo lands who made them in good faith can come from an Act of Congress, since, under the Felipe Sandoval decision of the United States Supreme Court, the Congress of the United States has control over the lands of the Pueblo Indians.

Senator Bursum introduced a bill into the Sixty-seventh Congress for the purpose of settling the question of claims to lands which were a part of the Pueblo grants. The bill was opposed by a committee representing those who believed that the Bursum Bill would be unjust to the Indians. This committee offered a substitute measure known as the Jones-Leatherwood Bill. Neither the Bursum Bill nor the Jones-Leatherwood Bill received the approval of the Board of Indian Commissioners, whose members for the past fifty years have assisted in forming Indian policy. As a result of the Senate hearing, a new measure was drawn up and introduced by Senator Bursum, December 10, 1923, which provides for the appointment of a commission to investigate Pueblo Indian land titles; and further that no title may be disturbed where possession has continued for thirty years. These bills failed to pass in the 1923 Session of Congress, although the bill of December 10th had the support of the Board of Indian Commissioners.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

New Mexico Indians

Abel, A. H. *The Official Correspondence of James S. Calhoun.* Washington, D. C., 1915.

Bancroft, H. H. *Native Races.* 5 vols. San Francisco, Cal., 1883.

Bandelier, A. F. "Contributions to the History of the Southwestern Portion of the United States." Archæological Institute of America. *Papers: American Series.* V. Boston, 1890.

---------- ------ *The Delight Makers.* New York, 1918.

---------- ------ "Documentary History of the Rio Grande Pueblos of New Mexico * * *." School of American Archæology. *Papers.* No. 13. n. p., 1910.

---------- ------ "Final Report of Investigations Among the Indians of the Southwestern United States * * *." Archæological Institute of America. *Papers: American Series.* III, IV. 2 vols. Boston, 1890.

---------- ------ *The Gilded Man.* New York, 1893.

---------- ------ "Historical Introduction to Studies Among the Sedentary Indians of New Mexico." Archæological Institute of America. *Papers: American Series.* I. Boston, 1883.

---------- ------ "An Outline of the Documentary History of the Zuñi Tribe." *Journal of American Ethnology and Archæology.* III. (1892), 1-115.

---------- ------ "Report on the Ruins of the Pueblo of Pecos." Archæological Institute of America. *Papers: American Series.* I. Boston, 1883.

Bartlett, Florence. "The Creation of the Zuñis." *Old Santa Fe.* II. (1914-15), 79-87.

Benavides, Alonso de. *The Memorial of Fray Alonso de Benavides, 1630.* Tr. by Mrs. E. E. Ayer. Annotated by F. W. Hodge and C. F. Lummis. Chicago, 1916.

Bierbower, Susan. "Among the Cliff and Cavate Dwellings of New Mexico." *Records of the Past.* IV. (1905), 227-33.

Blount, Bertha. "The Apache in the Southwest." *The Southwestern Historical Quarterly.* XXIII. (1919), 20-38.

Boas, Franz. "Tales of Spanish Provenience From Zuñi." *Journal of American Folk-Lore.* XXXV. (1922), 62-98.

Bolton, H. E. "The Jumano Indians." Texas Historical Association. *The Quarterly.* XV. (1911), 66-85.

Bourke, J. G. "The Medicine Men of the Apache." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Annual Report, 1888.* pp. 443-603.

Carleton, J. H. "Diary of an Excursion to the Ruins of Abo, Quarra and Gran Quivira, in New Mexico, Dec. 14, 1853." (Serial 772, Doc. 24.) pp. 296-316.

Census Bureau. *Indian Population in the United States . . 1910.* Wash., D. C., 1915.

Commissioner of Indian Affairs. "Annual Report." Secretary of Interior *Annual Report.* 1850-date.

Crawford, M. D. "The Loom in the New World." *American Museum Journal.* XVI. (1916), 381-88.

Cushing, F. H. "My Adventures in Zuñi." *Century.* III. (1882-83), 191.

—————— ——— "Outlines of Zuñi Creation Myths." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Annual Report, 1892.* pp. 321-447.

—————— ——— "A Study of Pueblo Pottery as Illustrative of Zuñi Culture Growth." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Annual Report, 1883.* pp. 467-521.

—————— ——— "Zuñi Fetiches." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Annual Report, 1882.* pp. 3-45.

—————— ——— *Zuñi Folk-Tales.* 1901.

Davis, W. W. H. *El Gringo.* New York, 1857.

Douglass, W. B. "A World-quarter Shrine of the Tewa Indians." *Records of the Past.* XI. (1912), 159-73.

Douglass, W. B. "The Land of the Small House People." *El Palacio.* IV. (1917), 2-23.

Downing, M. B. "San Jose de Acoma." *Catholic World.* CVIII. (1919), 784-94.

Duff, U. F. "The Prehistoric Ruins of the Southwest." *Records of the Past.* I. (1902), 67-76.

Fewkes, J. W. "The Cave Dwellings of the Old and New World." Smithsonian Institution. *Annual Report, 1910.* pp. 613-34.

—————— ——— "The Pueblo Settlements Near El Paso, Texas." *American Anthropologist,* N. S. IV. (1902), 57-75.

Fynn, A. F. *The American Indian as a Product of Environment with Special Reference to the Pueblos.* Boston, 1907.

Gates, M. E. "Indian Civilization and Property Rights." Lake Mohonk Conference. "*Annual Report, 1909.* pp. 62-74.

Goddard, P. E. *Indians of the Southwest.* New York, 1913.

—————— ——— "Jicarilla Apache Texts." American Museum of Natural History. *Anthropological Papers.* VIII. New York, 1921.

Gunn, J. M. "History of the Queres Pueblos of Laguna and Acoma." *Record of the Past.* III. (1904), 291-309; 328-43.

Hackett, C. W. "Location of the Tigua Pueblos of Alameda, Puaray, and Sandia in 1680-1681." *Old Santa Fe.* II. (1914-15), 381-91.

—————— ——— "Otermin's Attempt to Reconquer New Mexico, 1681-1682." *Old Santa Fe.* III. (1916), 44-84, 103-132.

—————— ——— "Retreat of the Spaniards from New Mexico in 1680 * * *." *Southwestern Historical Quarterly.* XVI. (1912), 137-68; 259-76.

---

1. "Serial 772" refers to the "Serial Set" of United States Public Documents.

---------- ------ "Revolt of the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico in 1680." Texas State Historical Association. *The Quarterly.* XV. (1911-12), 93-147.

Hales, Henry. "Prehistoric New Mexican Pottery." Smithsonian Institution. *Annual Report, 1892.* pp. 535-44.

Harrington, J. P. "A Brief Description of the Tewa Language." School of American Archaeology. *Papers.* No. 17, n. p., 1910.

---------- ------ "The Ethnogeography of the Tewa Indians." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Annual Report, 1908.*

---------- ------ "House Builders of the Desert." *Art and Archaeology.* IV. (1916), 297-306.

---------- ------ "An Introductory Paper on the Tiwa Language, Dialect of Taos, New Mexico." School of American Archaeology. *Papers.* No. 14. n. p., 1910.

---------- ------ "Notes on the Piro Language." School of American Archaeology. *Papers.* No. 8. n. p., 1909.

Harris, H. H. "Pajarito Ruins, Their Accessibility." *Records of the Past.* V. (1906), 291-94.

Hewett, E. L. "Anahuac and Aztlan." *Art and Archaeology.* XVI. (1923), 35-50.

---------- ------ "Antiquities of the Jemez Plateau, New Mexico." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Bulletin.* No. 32.

---------- ---- "The Chaco Canyon in 1921." *Art and Archaeology.* XIV. (1922), 115-31.

---------- ------ "The Excavations at El Rito de los Frijoles in 1909." School of American Archaeology. *Papers.* No. 10, n. p., 1909.

---------- ------ "The Excavations at Puye, New Mexico." School of American Archaeology. *Papers.* No. 4. n. p., 1909.

---------- ------ "The Excavations at Tyuonyi, New Mexico in 1908." School of American Archaeology. *Papers.* No. 5. n. p., 1909.

---------- ------ "A General View of the Archaeology of the Pueblo Region." Smithsonian Institution. *Annual Report,* 1904. pp. 583-605.

---------- ------ *Les Communautés Anciennes dans le Désert Americain.* Geneva, 1908.

---------- ------ "The Pajaritan Culture." School of American Archaeology. *Papers.* No. 3. n. p., 1909.

---------- ------ "Prehistoric Irrigation in the Navajo Desert." *Records of the Past.* IV. (1905), 323-28.

---------- ------ "The Proposed National Park of the Cliff Cities." *Old Santa Fe.* III. (1916), 150-60.

Hodge, F. W., ed. "Handbook of American Indians North of Mexico." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Bulletin.* No. 30. 2 vols.

---------- ------ "The Jumano Indians." American Antiquarian Society. *Proceedings.* n. s. XX. (1910.)

---------- ------ "Pueblo Snake Ceremonials." *American Anthropologist.* IX. (1896), 133-36.

---------- ------ "Turquoise Work of Hawikuh, New Mexico." Heye Foundation. *Leaflet.* No. 2. New York, 1921.

Holmes, W. H. "Handbook of Aboriginal American Antiquities." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Bulletin.* No. 60.

---------- ------ "Pottery of the Ancient Pueblos." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Annual Report,* 1883. pp. 257-360.

Hough, Walter. "Antiquities of the Upper Gila and Salt River Valleys in Arizona and New Mexico." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Bulletin.* No. 35.

---------- ------. "Sacred Springs of the Southwest." *Records of the Past.* V. (1906), 163-69.

Jackson, W. H. "Report on the Ancient Ruins Examined in 1875 and 1877." *Hayden Geological and Geographical Survey of the Territories,* 1876. Wash., D. C., 1878.

Jeançon, J. A. "Explorations in Chama Basin, New Mexico." *Records of the Past.* X. (1911), 92-108.

---------- ------ "Ruins of Pesedeuinge." *Records of the Past.* XI. (1912), 28-37.

Johnston, W. R. "Indians on the Public Domain in Arizona and New Mexico * * *." Lake Mohonk Conference. *Annual Report,* 1913. pp. 64-71.

Kappler, C. J., comp. "Indian Affairs—Laws and Treaties." (Serial 4253, 4254, Doc. 452.) 2 vols.

Kidder, A. L. "Old North Pueblo of Pecos." School of American Archaeology. *Papers.* No. 38. n. p., 1917.

---------- ------ "The Pueblo of Pecos." School of American Archaeology. *Papers.* No. 33. n. p., 1916.

Kroeber, A. L. "The Oldest Town in America and its People." *American Museum Journal.* XVI. (1916), 81-85.

---------- ------ "Zuñi Kin and Clan." American Museum of Natural History. *Anthropological Papers.* XVIII., pt. 2 (1917), 41-185.

---------- ------ "Zuñi Potsherds." American Museum of Natural History. *Anthropological Papers.* XXVIII., pt. 1 (1916), 1-39.

Letherman, Jona. "Sketches of the Navajo Tribe of Indians." (Serial 867, Doc. 113.) pp. 283-97.

Leupp, F. E. *Notes of a Summer Tour Among the Indians of the Southwest.* Phila. 1897.

Lummis, C. F. *Land of Poco Tiempo.* New York, 1893.

---------- ------ *Pueblo Indian Folk-Stories.* New York, 1910.

---------- ------ *Spanish Pioneers.* Chicago, 1893.

Lyon, W. B. "Antiquities in New Mexico." (Serial 1482, Doc. 149.) pp. 403-404.

Mallery, Garrick. "Picture Writing of the American Indians." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Annual Report,* 1889. pp. 1-807.

Matthews, Washington. "The Mountain Chant, a Navajo Ceremony." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Annual Report,* 1884. pp. 385-467.

---------- ------ "Navajo Legends." American Folk-Lore Society. *Memoirs.* V. (1897), 1-299.

---------- ------ "Navajo Silversmiths." (Serial 2055, Doc. 61.)

---------- ------ "Navajo Weavers." (Serial 2317, Doc. 32.)

Miles, N. A. "Correspondence with General Miles Relative to the Surrender of Gerónimo. (Serial 2449, Doc. 117.)

Mindeleff, Cosmos. "Navajo Houses." (Serial 3836, Doc. 316.)

Moorehead, W. K. "Stone Effigies from the Southwest." *Records of the Past.* I. (1902), 246-50.

Morgan, L. H. *Contributions to North American Ethnology.* Vol. 4. Wash., D. C., 1881.

Morris, E. H. "The Aztec Ruin." American Museum of Natural History. *Anthropological Papers.* XXVI., pt. 1 (1919), 1-108.

---------- ------ "The House of the Great Kiva at the Aztec Ruin." American Museum of Natural History. *Anthropological Papers.* XXVI., pt. 2 (1921), 109-38.

Murchison, K. S. "Digest of Decisions Relating to Indian Affairs." (Serial 4190, Doc. 538.)

Nelson, N. C. "Ancient Cities of New Mexico." *American Museum Journal.* XV. (1915), 389-94.

---------- ------ "Chronology of the Tano Ruins, New Mexico." *American Anthropologist,* N. S. XVIII. (1916), 15-80.

---------- ------ "Pueblo Ruins of the Galisteo Basin." American Museum of Natural History. *Anthropological Papers.* XV., pt. 1 (1914), 1-124.

---------- ------ "Ruins of Prehistoric New Mexico." *American Museum Journal.* XIII. (1913), 63-81.

Parsons, E. C. "The Antelope Clan in Keresan Custom and Myth." *Man.* XVII. (1917).

---------- ------ "Laguna Genealogies." American Museum of Natural History. *Anthropological Papers.* XIX., pt. 5 (1923), 133-292.

---------- ------ "Mothers and Children at Laguna." *Man.* XIX. (1919).

---------- ------ "Nativity Myth at Leguna and Zuñi."

---------- ------ "Nativity Myth at Laguna and Zuñi."

---------- ------ "Notes on Acoma and Laguna." *American Anthropologist.* N. S. XX. (1918), 162-86.

---------- ------ "Notes on Ceremonialism at Laguna." American Museum of Natural History. *Anthropological Papers.* XIX., pt. 4 (1920), 87-133.

---------- ------ "Notes on Zuñi." American Anthropological Association. *Memoirs.* IV., pts. 2, 3 (1917).

---------- ------ "The Zuñi Molawia." *Journal of American Folk-Lore.* XXIX. (1916), 392-99.

---------- ------ "War God Shrines of Laguna and Zuñi." *American Anthropologist.* N. S. XX. (1918), 381-405.

Parsons, E. C., and Franz Boas. "Spanish Tales from Laguna and Zuñi." *Journal of American Folk-Lore.* XXXIII. (1920), 47-72.

Pepper, G. H. "Pueblo Bonito." American Museum of Natural History. *Anthropological Papers.* XXVII. (1920), 1-490.

Powell, J. W. "Indian Linguistic Families of America North of Mexico." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Annual Report,* 1886. pp. 1-142.

"Prehistoric Pottery from the Mimbres Valley." *Art and Archaeology.* I. (1914-15), 84.

Prince, L. B. *Spanish Mission Churches of New Mexico.* Cedar Rapids, Iowa, 1915.

---------- ------ "The Stone Lions of Cochiti." *Records of the Past.* III. (1904), 151-62.

Putnam Anniversary Volume. New York, 1907.

Reagan, A. B. "The Jemez Indians." *El Palacio.* IV. (1917), 24-72.

Royce, C. C., comp. "Indian Land Cessions in the United States." (Serial 4015, Doc. 736.)

Russell, Frank. "Myths of the Jicarilla Apache." *Journal of American Folk-Lore.* XI. (1898), 253-71.

Schwatka, Frederick. *In the Land of the Cave and Cliff Dwellers.* Boston, 1895.

Seymour, F. W. "Land Titles in the Pueblo Indian Country." American Bar Association. *Journal.* X. (1924), 36-41.

Shea, J. G. *History of the Catholic Missions Among the Indian Tribes of the United States.* New York, 1855.

Shufeldt, R. W. "Examples of Unusual Zuñian Pottery." *Records of the Past.* IX. (1910), 208-12.

---------- ------ "A Navajo Artist and His Notions of Mechanical Drawing." (Serial 2498, Doc. 107, pt. 1.)

Simpson, J. H. "Journal of a Military Reconnaissance from Santa Fe, New Mexico, to the Navajo Country, in August, 1849." (Serial 562, Doc. 64.)

Spiegelberg, A. F. "The Navajo Blanket." *Old Santa Fe.* II. (1914-15), 323-37.

Spier, Leslie. "An Outline for a Chronology of Zuñi Ruins." American Museum of Natural History. *Anthropological Papers.* XVIII, pt. 3 (1917), 207-333.

Spinden, H. J. "Home Songs of the Tewa Indians." *American Museum Journal.* XV (1915),73-78.

---------- ------ "Indian Dances of the Southwest." *American Museum Journal.* XV (1915), 103-15.

Stevenson, James. "Illustrated Catalogue of the Collections Obtained from the Indians of New Mexico and Arizona in 1879-1880. Bureau of American Ethnology. *Annual Report, 1881.* pp. 307-465.

---------- ------ "Illustrated Catalogue of the Collections Obtained From the Pueblo of Zuñi, New Mexico." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Annual Report, 1882.* pp. 511-94.

Stevenson, M. C. "Ethnobotany of the Zuñi Indians." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Annual Report, 1892.* pp. 31-102.

---------- ------ "The Sia." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Annual Report, 1890.* pp. 3-157.

---------- ------ "The Religious Life of the Zuñi Child." Bureau of American Ethnology. *Annual Report, 1884.* pp. 533-55.

---------- ------ "Stone Idols of New Mexico." Historical Society of New Mexico. *Publications.* No. 3. Santa Fe, N. M., 1896.

Strover, William. "The Apaches' Last Trek." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XIII (Aug., 1910), 43-48.

Twitchell, R. E. "The Ancient Pueblo of Pecos." *Santa Fe Magazine.* IV (1910), 27-32.

---------- ------ *Leading Facts of New Mexican History.* Vols. 1, 2. Cedar Rapids, Iowa, 1911-1912.

Walter, P. A. F. "The Cities that Died of Fear." School of American Archæology. *Papers.* No. 35, n. p., 1916.

---------- ------ "Digging Up the Distant Past Along the Santa Fe in New Mexico." *Santa Fe Magazine.* X (May, 1916), 25-32.

---------- ------ "Fray Alonso de Benavides." *Old Santa Fe.* III (1916), 267-74.

Welsh, Herbert. *Report of a Visit to the Navajo, Pueblo, and Hualapais Indians.* Phila., 1885.

Wetherill, L. W., and Byron Cummings. "A Navajo Folk-Tale of Pueblo Bonito." *Art and Archaeology.* XIV (1922), 132-36.

Wissler, Clark. "Pueblo Bonito and the Hyde Expedition." *Natural History.* XXII (1922), 143-54.

---------- ------ *The American Indian.* New York, 1922.

---------- ------ *Man and Culture.* New York, 1923.

CHAPTER X

EXPLORATION OF THE NORTHERN FRONTIER OF NEW SPAIN, 1528-1542

The Spanish explorers of the seas and lands of the New World, between 1492 and 1525, ran the coast from the Straits of Magellan to the mouth of the Saint Lawrence, discovered the Panamá route, made settlements at the Isthmus of Panamá and Mexico, colonized the West Indies, began the explorations for extension of Spanish dominions southward from Panamá into Perú and northward into Central America; and from Mexico northward in the interior, along the coasts and southward into Yucatan and Gautamala. Not merely explorations these, but along with the discoveries the European civilization of the leading state of Europe was being planted and the foundation laid for the first great national despotic imperial colonial empire of the modern world. The system of government of dependencies on an exclusive mercantile basis was developed. Local government was organized, legal institutions were provided, economic exploitation was begun and Christianity was introduced.

In the period 1525-1543 explorations extending from Florida to the California coast paved the way for the later colonization of Florida and New Mexico in the latter part of the sixteenth century, Texas in the early part of the eighteenth and California in the latter part of that century. The first of the expeditions was that of Narváez. The journey of the treasurer of this Florida adventure, Cabeza de Vaca, extended over the period from 1528 to 1536. He lived among the Indians of Texas for almost six years, then found his way with a few companions up the Rio Grande and across the continent to the Spanish outpost, Culiacán, on the Gulf of California. The expeditions which followed were planned for colonization, but failed in that respect, although the exploits of De Soto east of the Mississippi, Coronado and Melchior Díaz in the Southwest, Ulloa and Alarcón along the coasts of the Gulf of California, and Cabrillo and Ferrelo on the California coast, contributed to the geographical knowledge of the country from Florida to Oregon.

Pánfilo de Narváez organized a colonizing enterprise in Spain of 600 people who sailed from San Lucar at the mouth of the Guadalquivir River on June 7, 1527. Narváez, who had spent a number of years in Cuba, had witnessed the success of Cortés in Mexico and hoped to found a great kingdom for Charles V. in that indefinite region of the continent called Florida. He had therefore petitioned for and received the right to colonize the lands that Ponce de León and Garay had attempted to occupy. As a result of the expedition his name was added to the list of unsuccessful *adelantados* of Florida.

Events in Cuba delayed the undertaking and caused the loss of one-third of the members so that when the colonizers reached the west coast of the Florida peninsula in the vicinity of Tampa Bay, April 12, 1528, they numbered but 400. Narváez with 300 men went ashore while the ships were sent northward along the coast in search of a good harbor. The land and sea parties were never reunited. The fleet, after running along the coast north of Tampa Bay and after failing to meet with the land party, returned to Cuba. After spending about four months between Tampa Bay and Apalachee Bay without discovering any peaceful Indians, or wealth in a convenient form, the leaders of the expedition agreed that they could save themselves from starvation in no other way than by building boats and sailing along the coast to Pánuco. Five barges, each about thirty-six feet long, were constructed and loaded with supplies and 250 men for what proved to be a disastrous voyage.

The five barges left Apalachee Bay on September 22, 1528. One of these boats was commanded by Narváez, one by Alonso del Castillo and Andrés Dorantes, and one by Cabeza de Vaca. Their destination, Pánuco, was more distant than they supposed. After touching the coast several times, they were driven out to sea as they passed the mouth of the Mississippi and one of the barges was lost. The two in charge of Castillo and Dorantes, and Cabeza de Vaca were wrecked in November, 1528, on an island which they named Malhado. Narváez and his companions were driven out to sea by a storm at the time of the wrecking of the other boats, while the fourth barge was stranded near the Island of Malhado. This location which formed the starting point of the journey of the survivors of the Narváez expedition was San Luis Island lying west of Galveston Island.

In the neighborhood of 150 Spaniards from the four barges were castaways on the Texas coast. Only fifteen of the eighty who had been driven ashore on San Luis Island were alive by the spring of 1529, while all of those of the other two barges had perished during the first winter. In April Andrés Dorantes, Alonso del Castillo, the negro slave Estevánico, and nine others left San Luis Island without Cabeza de Vaca and two others who remained because they were too ill to travel. Dorantes and his party started for Pánuco, but after crossing a number of rivers west of San Luis Island, were captured and held as slaves by the Indian tribes. The leaders and the slave remained among these Indians until joined by Cabeza de Vaca more than four years later.

Alaniz, one of the three men left at San Luis Island when the Dorantes party set out, died in 1529, leaving only Oviedo and Cabeza de Vaca. The latter desired to escape, but Oviedo refused putting him off year after year. Finally in 1533 Oviedo agreed to attempt the journey, but the two men had not gone far before he turned back to San Luis Island allowing Cabeza de Vaca to proceed alone. Before Cabeza de Vaca had gone very far he fell in with a band of Indians who held as slaves the only other survivors of the expedition, namely: Dorantes, Castillo and Estevánico. Another year passed during which the survivors were always planning an escape—failing at first, but in the second year succeeding. Going westward they joined another tribe of Indians whom they called the Avavares. With these people they crossed a barren stretch to a prickly pear region lying east of a great river probably the Rio Grande. Here they remained during the winter of 1534 and 1535. While among these Indians Cabez de Vaca impressed them with his power to heal the sick which caused them to consider him and his companions as supernatural beings and to willingly spread this information to the neighboring tribes.

When the journey was resumed in the spring of 1535 conditions of travel had completely changed. An increasing number of Indians accompanied them furnishing plenty of food and establishing friendly relations with the new tribes they encountered. The Spaniards crossed the Rio Grande about seventy-five miles from its mouth and then turned westward definitely giving up the plan of following the coast to Pánuco on account of the better treatment they had received from Indians of the interior. The route passed north of Monterey, capital of Nuevo Leon, and then northwest to the vicinity of Monclova where it turned north crossing the Rio Grande a short distance west of the mouth of the Pecos River. After travelling some distance north of the Rio Grande they returned to the river near the mouth of Conchos and journeyed seventeen days along the north bank of the Rio Grande, before crossing it again probably in the vicinity of El Paso. From here they passed westward into northern Sonora and were conducted by the Indians of that region down the Yaqui Valley. In that region they met a Spanish, slave hunting expedition from Culiacán which they accompanied to the frontier settlement of Nueva Galicia. On July 24, 1536, Cabeza de Vaca and this three companions arrived in the City of Mexico.

During the years the survivors of the Narváez expedition spent among the Indians on the Texas coast numerous attempts were made by Cortés and Guzmán to extend the conquests along the Pacific coast northwest of Mexico City. Cortès laid claim to the right of settling the northern country on the basis of the grant made to him in 1529 by the king of Spain which gave him the governorship of any islands in the South Sea, by which was meant the lands along the west coast of New Spain and the coast of China. After several unsuccessful exploring expeditions Cortés attempted to found a colony at La Luz on the southern end of the peninsula of Lower California in 1535, which was abandoned after a short time. While governor of

Pánuco, Guzmán received reports of seven cities existing somewhere in the country to the north. In December, 1529, while holding the office of president of the first audiencia and governor of New Spain he organized an expedition of 500 members to make conquests northwest of Mexico City. In 1530 an Indian reported to Guzmán the existence of seven wealthy cities to the north of the present Sinaloa. This is probably the first hint of the Pueblos that were to be discovered in a few years. In the fall of the following year Guzmán founded the City of Culiacán on the Gulf of California which was the Spanish outpost for some years to come. Leaving Melchior Díaz and other captains in charge he returned southward and founded the capital of the new province, Nueva Galicia, at Compostela.

The appointment of Antonio de Mendoza as first viceroy of New Spain in 1535 marked the beginning of a period of improved organization in the continental possessions of Spain. In the latter part of July, 1536, the viceroy planned a northern expedition which was to be in charge of Andrés Dorantes who had a short time before arrived in Mexico City with Cabeza de Vaca from the Rio Grande country. For some reason this project was abandoned. In April of the following year a contract was signed by De Soto and the king of Spain for the exploration of Florida, and on the basis of this agreement De Soto later claimed the Seven Cities of Cibola. Shortly after this contract had been drawn up Cabeza de Vaca arrived in Spain, with the intention of obtaining the position of *adelantado* of Florida. De Soto made efforts to get Cabeza de Vaca to join his expedition but was unsuccessful. In 1538 Friar Juan de la Asunción and another friar were sent to convert the natives north of Nueva Galicia travelling some 700 miles, probably reaching the lower valley of the Gila River, and bringing back reports of settled people in that country. During the same year Pedro de Alvarado made a contract with the government of Spain for northern and western explorations toward China and the Spice Islands. He had been a captain for Cortés in the days of the Conquest of Mexico and governor and captain general of Guatamala since 1528, an office which he continued to hold until he was killed in 1541 in the Mixton war, which was fought in Nueva Galicia. Alvarado brought ships from Spain in 1539 which he planned to use in northern explorations. Francisco Vásquez Coronado succeeded Diego Pérez de la Torre, who had taken the place of Guzmán, as governor of Nueva Galicia in April, 1539.

Friar Marcos de Niza, who had been with Pizarro in Perú and who was thought well of by the viceroy, for his piety, knowledge and extensive experience in the New World, was appointed in 1538 as vice commisisoner general of the Franciscan Order in the New World. Early in 1539 Friar Marcos was chosen by Viceroy Mendoza to investigate the land north of Culiacán and to inaugurate a new policy in Indian affairs, which was to bring an end to the hostilities in that direction occasioned by the slave hunting expeditions that had characterized the Spanish contact with the natives northwest of Mexico since Guzmán's first journey in 1529. In this peace policy the viceroy was influenced by that famous reformer Friar Bartolomé de Las Casas who attempted to solve one of the most difficult problems of Spanish colonization in the Americas, namely: the relation of the Europeans to the Indians.

When Friar Marcos left Culiacán, March, 1539, on his northern expedition he was accompanied by Estevánico, as guide, who had been purchased by the viceroy from Andrés Dorantes. It will be remembered that this African Moor was one of the four survivors of the Narváez expedition. He, therefore, had some acquaintance with the lands to be explored. The party also included a number of Pima Indians who had been brought to the Spanish settlements by Cabeza de Vaca in 1536, where they had been converted and taught the Spanish language in order that they might act as interpreters. The company followed the coast until they crossed the Mayo River in the southern part of the State of Sonorá. At this point the course was northeast to a place called Vacapa which was probably about half way between the present towns of Hermosillo and Nogales in northern Sonorá. From here Friar Marcos sent Indians westward to bring back reports of the coast of the Gulf of California, and Estevánico was dispatched northward with instructions to send a messenger as soon as he discovered important Indian settlements. Four days after starting the Moor sent a man's-sized cross to the friar, which was the sign agreed upon in case very large settlements were found. Estevánico sent a verbal message stating that thirty days farther north in a place called Cíbola there were seven cities with houses having doors set with jewels. After receiving this report the friar crossed the divide between the Sonora Valley and the San Pedro from where he descended to the Gila. Shortly after leaving the Gila Valley for the north, May 9, 1539, one of the chiefs with the friar received a report from his son, who had accompanied Estevánico, to the effect that the Moor and his party had reached the town of the people with houses of many stories and that they had been attacked on the morning after their arrival. Estevánico had been instructed to await the arrival of the friar before entering the village, but when within one day's jorney he sent a messenger to the Pueblo stating to the chiefs that he had come to make peace and to heal the sick. The leaders of Hawwikku replied by ordering Estevánico to leave the country. He refused and immediately proceeded to the town where the Indians gave the party quarters outside of the Pueblo. On the following morning the Moor's party was attacked and all including Estevánico were killed, except a few who carried the message of the conflict to Friar Marcos. The Indians in the friar's party did not wish to continue the journey but were finally persuaded to do so with presents. When within one day's march from the Pueblo, two wounded Indians brought more detailed reports of the struggle in which about 300 Indians of Estevánico's party had been killed. Friar Marcos then decided not to attempt to enter the village fearing he might be killed and the information of the country lost. The return journey late in the summer followed the path of the advance that spring. Friar Marcos de Niza made his statement concerning the value of the northern country to Coronado at Compostela early in September, 1539.

The expedition of Friar Marcos for the viceroy increased competition among those having some claim to the right of making northern explorations. Cortés, Pedro de Alvarado and De Soto, through their representatives in Spain insisted upon their exclusive privilege of discovery. These legal disputes in 1540 and 1541 were decided in favor of the viceroy. Cortés made his last attempt to discover important lands along the northwest coast of Mexico in 1539. Friar Marcos and Estevánico were in the Cíbola country when Cortés, on July 8, 1539, sent Francisco de Ulloa by sea to explore the lands bordering the Gulf of California. The coast was run to the head of the gulf; the expedition then followed along the west shore of Lower California to the southern extremity of the peninsula and continued up the west side to a place which they called Cabo de Engaño which was probably in the vicinity of the present Island of Cedros about two-thirds of the distance up the Pacific Coast of the Peninsula of California. The report of the expedition was made to Cortés in April of 1540. Cortés wrote to the Council of the Indies stating that he was prepared to continue the search for the northern cities. In order to better protect his rights Cortés returned to Spain, an event which closed his relations with the northern enterprises. De Soto by the spring of 1540 had spent a year in the Florida country from which he never returned to make further claims to the right to control the northern cities reported by Friar Marcos de Niza. Pedro de Alvarado, the other claimant, continued as a rival of the viceroy until November 29, 1540, when a contract was made between them by which they agreed to share the profits of the northern expeditions. The death of Alvarado June 24, 1541, in the Indian uprising in Nueva Galicia known as the Mixton war left Alvarado's fleet in the hands of the viceroy.

After the return of Friar Marcos from Cíbola in the fall of 1539, Melchior Díaz and Juan de Zaldívar were sent by order of the viceroy November 17 to verify the reports of the friar. They went 260 miles north of Culiacán, spent the winter there, and confirmed the story of the many-storied houses of Cíbola, but told no tales of wealth. They returned to Culiacán March 20, 1540.

In May, 1540, the fleet of the viceroy, commanded by Hernando de Alcarón left Acapulco to explore the lands at the head of the Gulf of California and to co-operate with the viceroy's land expedition. In the fall of the year, in small boats, Alcarón ascended the Colorado which he called the Buena Guía. Reports were heard of the Cíbola cities but no connection between the two expeditions was effected.

The culmination of the northern attempts came with the Coronado expedition. Through the winter of 1539 and 1540 the viceroy busied himself in organizing the party that was expected to discover another region as rich or richer than Mexico City or Perú. The exaggerated ideas of the wealth to be found in the northern country were probably not entirely due to the reports of Friar Marcos, but rather to the desires of the Spanish gentlemen adventurers who were willing to believe stories said to be based on his reports.

It is further believed that the viceroy found in the expedition a profitable occupation for a number of the said gentlemen adventurers who, when not busy with an expedition, were rather inclined to insubordination and in the City of Mexico were a source of trouble for the viceroy who was engaged in stabilizing the government of New Spain which had suffered from the rivalries of contending leaders during the twenty years since the beginning of the conquest.

The members of the Coronado expedition assembled at Compostela in January, 1540. There were 300 Spaniards, many of them of gentle blood. Coronado was appointed by the viceroy as captain-general of the party. There were so many of rank in the company that it was only with much difficulty that the viceroy picked out the captains. In order to preserve discipline among so many who were accustomed to command, the viceroy required a special oath of obedience to those whom he had placed in control of the expedition. In addition to the Spaniards there were some 800 Indian allies. A large number of sheep and cows were taken for food on this tour.

The fully equipped expedition, said to have been the finest organized up to this time in New Spain, was reviewed by the viceroy, February 22, 1540. Many of the Spaniards wore coats of mail, as did their leader, whose gilded armor made him conspicuous among his companions. Iron helmets and bull-hide head pieces were part of the paraphernalia for the conquest. Lances and swords were the weapons of the mounted soldiers. The footmen were armed with crossbows and arquebuses. The natives with their own instruments of war made up a large part of the army for the invasion of the northern country.

The journey of two years duration began on the following day. Early in March the unnecessary equipment was discarded. In the vicinity of Mazatlan in Southern Sinaloa, Melchior Díaz who had just returned from the north joined the army and reports spread among the members of the expedition that tended to discredit the stories of wealth, from which serious desertions resulted. On Easter Sunday, March 28, 1540, the Spanish frontier settlement of San Miguel de Culiacán was reached. Here the expedition was re-organized and Melchior Díaz with a party of 100 men formed an advance party while the rest of the company under Tristán de Arellano was to follow at a slower pace, leaving Culiacán on May 9th. Coronado and his advance party left the Sonora Valley, May 26, 1540, and crossed the mountains to the San Pedro Valley, reaching the Gila in the neighborhood of Mount Graham. Fifteen days of marching brought Coronado to the first Pueblo of the Zuñi Indians, Hawwikku, near the present Ojo Caliente, fifteen miles southwest of the Zuñi Pueblo. The Spanish advance upon the Pueblo was met with a shower of arrows. After being driven back a planned attack was made upon the town and after an hour's fighting the Indians deserted the vilage, leaving much needed supplies of corn, beans, turkey, and salt in the hands of the companions of Coronado. The other Pueblos of the district surrendered without armed conflict; the Seven Cities of Cíbola had been conquered but the wealth of those far famed cities was only sufficient to give the Indian population a meager living.

Coronado sent out a number of parties from Zuñi. Melchior Díaz was dispatched with letters to the Viceroy, August 8, 1540, to the settlement in the Sonora Valley, where Arellano was in command of the main party of the expedition. Friar Marcos went with him, some have said, because of feeling against him, due to the failure of the Seven Cities to produce the wealth that members of the expedition believed the Friar had reported, others because of his failing health. Díaz remained in charge of the settlement of eighty people that had been changed from Los Corazones to Sonora. Leaving Diego de Alcáraz in charge of the village, Díaz made an expedition with twenty-five men, in September, up the coast of the Gulf of California to the mouth of the Colorado River to find the Alarcón party. He crossed the Colorado which he called the Río del Tizon and while on a trip west of the river was accidentally wounded. On the return journey Díaz died from the effects of the injury.

Pedro de Tovar and Friar Juan de Padilla were sent northwest to Tusayan. This name applied by the Spaniards to the Hopi Pueblos probably originated from the Zuñi name, Usaya, for those Pueblos. Tovar stated that he found seven Pueblos at the base of a mesa and that the Indians refused to make peace, but that after a conflict, in which a number of the Hopi Indians were killed, they agreed to submit. Tovar also reported the existence of a great river some twenty days west of the Hopi towns. Coronado then ordered García Lopez de Cárdenas with twelve men to make the journey to the river. After twenty days of traveling beyond the Hopi villages the party discovered the Grand Canyon of the Colorado. Captain Melgosa of the party succeeded in making his way about one-third of the way down the side of the canyon but found it impossible to proceed farther.

Another expedition was sent eastward from Zuñi under Hernando de Alvarado. A group of Indians from Cicuye (Pecos) Pueblo headed by an Indian chief whom the Spaniards called Bigotes, who had come to Zuñi, asked the Spaniards to visit their country. Alvarado, Friar Juan de Padilla and twenty men were ordered to go with these Indians. They followed the trail to Acoma where, after a conflict, the Indians submitted. Then the party passed to the Tiguex Pueblos between the Isleta and Bernalillo. Alvarado sent a messenger to Coronado advising that winter quarters be established among the Tiguex Pueblos. He then went up the Galisteo Valley to the Pecos Pueblo, which was the largest single village of the New Mexico Indians, and capable of putting 500 warriors in the field. They were proud of the fact that they could defeat their enemies and protect their friends. A Pawnee, an Indian slave of the Pecos Pueblo, told Alvarado stories of a rich country many leagues to the east of the Pecos Valley. This Indian, on account of his appearance, was called the Turk by the Spaniards. Taking him as a guide, Alvarado went down the Pecos Valley about 250 miles. Making no discoveries he returned to Tiguex (Bernalillo) where he found Cárdenas who had been sent by Coronado to establish winter quarters in accordance with the suggestion made by Alvarado.

The main part of the expedition left the Sonora Valley on their journey to Cíbola about the middle of September, arriving there in the latter part of October, 1540. When they reached Zuñi, Coronado, in command of the remaining force of the advance party, went on to Tiguex, where Cárdenas and Alvarado had established themselves. Arellano, commander of the rear guard, was ordered, after resting his force twenty days, to follow.

Coronado at Tiguex listened to the stories of the Turk concerning the wealth of the country to the east of the Pecos Valley. The Turk stated that the Indians of the Pecos Pueblo had taken from him some gold bracelets that had come from his own country many leagues further east. Alvarado was then sent on a second trip to Pecos to verify this story. When a demand for the bracelets was made the Pecos Indians replied to the effect that the Turk was a great liar since he had never brought any gold to the village. Hernando de Alvarado refusing to believe the Pecos leaders, made prisoners of Chief Bigotes and the religious head of the Pueblo, called the cacique, who were put in chains and taken to the main camp at Tiguex, where they were held for six months. As the Spaniards left Cicuye (Pecos) the Indians shot arrows in their direction, relations having become decidedly unfriendly.

A short time before the arrival of the main force under Arellano, at Tiguex, in December, 1540, Coronado sent soldiers to the Tiguex Pueblos demanding 300 pieces of cotton cloth. This the Indians could not supply without taking the clothing from their backs, which they refused to do. The soldiers attempted to take the clothing from the Indians, which led to the driving of the Spaniards out of the Pueblos and the refusal upon the part of the inhabitants to admit soldiers into their villages. Cárdenas besieged one of the Pueblos for a day and a half, at the conclusion of which the Indians sued for peace, but due to some misunderstanding preparations were made for burning at the stake about 200 of those who had surrendered. When the Indians became aware of the significance of the stakes they attempted to obtain their liberty but only a few succeeded, the rest being shot down in the encounter that followed. The Indians spread the word among the Pueblos that the Spaniards could not be trusted. At a later time Cárdenas was imprisoned in Spain for this unwarranted treatment of the Tiguex Indians.

Arellano commanding the main part of the Coronado army arrived at the Tiguex towns in the vicinity of Bernalillo in December, 1540, coming from Zuñi by way of Acoma. Coronado then attempted without success to make peace with the rebellious Pueblos. One of the Pueblos was beseiged for fifty days at the end of which it surrendered, the water supply having given out. The Indians had held out as long as was possible having first given up their women and children on account of the shortage of water. Fifteen days after giving up the women and children the natives deserted the village and fled to the mesa nearby, where those who were not killed were enslaved.

Coronado decided in the spring of 1541 to explore the country to the east of the Pecos Valley. Before leaving Tiguex he sent Pedro de Tovar to the Sonora settlement with reports for Viceroy Mendoza. Coronado left Tiguex for the plains of Texas on April 23, 1541, taking with him the entire force. Some of the members of the expedition considered this action unwise, believing that it would be better to reconnoiter the country with a small advance party before attempting to lead the entire army into the new lands. Coronado proceeded to the Pueblo of the Pecos Indians who furnished all the supplies asked for and appeared to be friendly. Some believe that their friendship was not real, but merely assumed for the purpose of encouraging the Spaniards in their tour of the plains to the east, a journey which the Pecos Indians hoped would end in the destruction of the intruders. The expedition, guided by the Turk and several other Pawnee Indians, followed the west bank of the Pecos River to the vicinity of the present Puerto de Luna in Guadalupe County where they built a bridge across the stream and traveled eastward across the plains of Western Texas. They met the Querechos who used dogs to carry their tents from place to place as they followed the buffalo which supplied almost all of their wants. While on the eastward trip a hail storm destroyed a large part of the equipment of the expedition. After traveling eastward about 650 miles from Tiguex on the Rio Grande, the party was probably between the headwaters of the Brazos and the Red River. No settlements had been found and no wealth in the form of developed civilization as they had expected. The Teyas Indians of Texas told Coronado that there were settled people at a place thirty days' journey to the northward called Quivira. At this point a council of the officers of the expedition was held, at which the leaders decided that Coronado and thirty horsemen should explore the country to the north while the rest of the expedition commanded by Arellano should return to Tiguex. Coronado and his horsemen traveled thirty days when they came to the Arkansas River near the Great Bend in the vicinity of Dodge City. Here they met the first settlements of Quivira, but there were no towns, only teepees of people who followed the buffalo. He remained three weeks among the Indians of Quivira. (Wichita) and heard reports of rich lands further east, but it was the middle of August, and fearing the coming of winter would prevent him from joining the main party at Tiguex, he decided to make no effort to find these rumored towns, but to return to the Rio Grande. After forty days' travel up the Arkansas, across to the Cimarron and the Canadian, Coronado and his party reached Tiguex in the first part of October, 1541.

In the meantime the main part of the expedition which had been ordered back to the Rio Grande from the plains of northwestern Texas in June, 1541, reached Tiguex in the middle of July. The journey that had taken thirty-seven days on the outward trip was made in twenty-five on the return. They reached the Pecos about thirty leagues south of Puerto de Luna where they had crossed on the outward journey. Following up the valley they came to the Pecos Pueblo. These Indians were unfriendly and refused to furnish any supplies which they had willingly done when the expedition left for the plains in April. The expedition then returned to Tiguex and small parties were sent out during August, 1541, to obtain supplies from the Pueblos. Captain Francisco Barrionuevo visited the Jemez Pueblos where the Indians agreed to furnish the tribute demanded. He then went up the river visiting the Pueblos as far north as Taos. Another officer was dispatched down the Rio Grande. He went eighty leagues (200) miles, visiting all of the Piro Pueblos. In the latter part of August, Arellano went to the Pecos Pueblo searching for Coronado and his companions. When the latter arrived in the vicinity of the Pecos Pueblo, these Indians attacked him but did not prevent his junction with Arellano. When the combined parties returned to Tiguex they found that re-enforcements from Sonora under Pedro de Tovar had arrived.

After wintering at Tiguex, Coronado planned to lead the entire force to the Quivira country in the spring of 1542 to discover lands that would provide valuable estates for his followers, but this plan was abandoned. Dissensions arose in the camp during the winter caused by unequal distribution of food and clothing. During a festival Coronado was almost killed when he fell from his horse. This event was followed by the return of Cárdenas who had started for New Spain but had turned back upon finding the settlement in Sonora in ruins. Some of the party who had been left in Sonora had deserted while the others had been killed by the Indians. According to Castañeda, Coranado desired to give up the search but planned to make it seem that the members of the expedition were in favor of abandoning the country. For this purpose those close to Coronado encouraged the signing of petitions asking for the immediate return of the expedition to Culiacán.

The preparations for the departure were completed in April, 1542, but all of the party did not leave the country. Those who remained were: Friar Juan de Padilla, who returned to Quivira and was killed; Luis de Escalona, who attempted to convert the Pecos Indians and suffered a similar fate; Juan de la Cruz, who was murdered at Tiguex; a Portuguese named Ocampo; two soldiers, who had been left at Quivira by Coronado; a mestizo; two Mexican Indians; and three negro slaves. The return expedition followed the route of the outward journey proceeding first to Cíbola and then to the Gila River at a place called Chichilticale where they met Juan Gallegos and a group of followers who were bringing re-enforcements in order to continue to northern explorations. Some of the leaders desired to again attempt to find settled people in the vicinity of Quivira, but much to the dissatisfaction of Gallegos, it was decided to continue the homeward march.

In March of 1543, after wintering in Nueva Galicia, Coronado and about 100 men of the army proceeded to Mexico where the final report was made to the viceroy who was disappointed in the outcome of the enterprise. However, he did not remove Coronado from his office as governor of Nueva Galica although the latter resigned a short time later and retired to his estates. The failure of the northern expeditions together with the Indian uprising in Nueva Galicia known as the Mixton war, which lasted from April 20 to December 25, 1541, had appreciably weakened the hold of the Spaniards upon New Spain.

In June of 1543 Cabrillo was sent up the Pacific Coast by the viceroy, and Villalobos in November of the same year started on a voyage across the Pacific. The ships were those built by Pedro de Alvarado for northern explorations and the journeys were a part of the viceroy's efforts to find a northern strait, to find wealthy communities in the northern country, and to establish connections between New Spain and the Orient. Cabrillo explored the Pacific Coast as far north as Oregon but found no settlements nor a strait. Villalobos was killed in the East Indies and it was not until some fifteen years later that the first Spanish ships returned to New Spain from the Far East.

CHAPTER XI

EXPLORATION AND COLONIZATION OF NEW MEXICO, 1545-1609

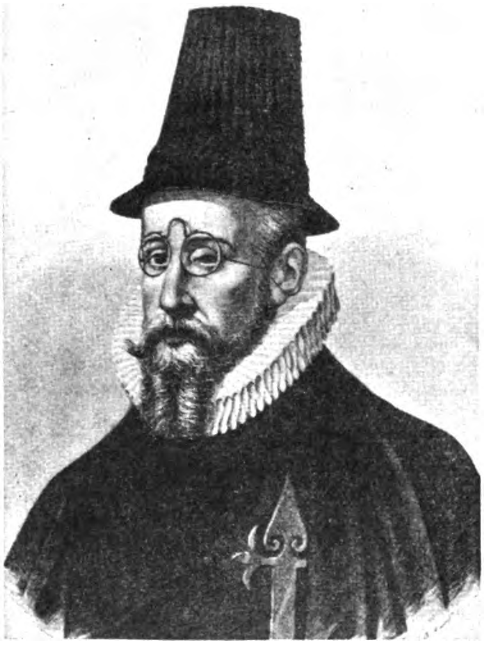
The expansion of New Spain took an entirely new direction in the second half of the sixteenth century. Instead of following the line of development along the Pacific Coast, settlements were made that extended from Querétaro northward to the Rio Grande. The population of the southern and western parts of Nueva Galicia was attracted by the rich silver mines that were opened in the central and eastern areas of the province. The mines of Zacatecas were discovered and made productive in the period of 1540-1550 by Cristóbal de Oñate, Diego de Ibarra and other leaders. The region about Querétaro lying between Zacatecas and Mexico City was subdued, in order to free the highway to the northern mines from the dangers of Indian attacks. The villa of Querétaro was founded in 1550 and the mines of Guanajuato and Aguas Calientes were in operation by 1554.

North of Zacatecas new mines were discovered and the conquest of the area, which was known as Charcas, lying north of Querétaro and east of Zacatecas, was begun in the years following 1550. The leader who discovered the mines north of Zacatecas was Francisco de Ibarra, a nephew of Diego de Ibarra, who had been prominent in the Zacatecas mining region. Between 1554 and 1562 a string of mining camps came into existence between Zacatecas and Durango, namely: Fresnillo, San Martín, Sombrerete and Nieves. A new province was created in 1562 which was named Nueva Vizcaya and Francisco Ibarra was made governor and captain-general. This province included all of the country north of Nueva Galicia. Durango, also called Guadiana, and Nombre de Díos were founded in 1563 and in the latter part of the same year Rodrigo del Río was sent to found the mining settlement of Indé, 125 miles north of Durango. During the year reports were made that northwest of Durango there were rich settlements, a New Mexico, but these did not exist. In 1563 and the years immediately following the valley of the Rio Florido, also called San Bartolomé Valley, was occupied and the settlement of Santa Barbara established. These mining towns were in the southern part of the present state of Chihuahua.

The conquest of Charcas, eastern Nueva Galicia, was begun in 1550 by Francisco de Urdiñola. A settlement was made at Mazapil in northeastern Nueva Galicia in 1568. An expedition under Francisco del Cano was conducted north from Mazapil to a lake which was named Lake of New Mexico. Francisco de

Urdiñola the younger established a colony of sixty families at Saltillo in Southern Coahuila in 1575 and Parras was founded by him in 1594. Tlascaltecan Indians were colonized at both of these towns, at Saltillo in 1591 and Parras in 1594. These Indians were used in the absence of colonists to aid in holding the Spanish outposts.

In the northern interior of Mexico the Franciscans and the Jesuits established missions during the second half of the sixteenth century as the frontier was pushed forward. These missions were established at Nombre de Díos, Durango, San Juan del Río, Mezquital, Cuencame, Santa Barbara, Parras and Saltillo.



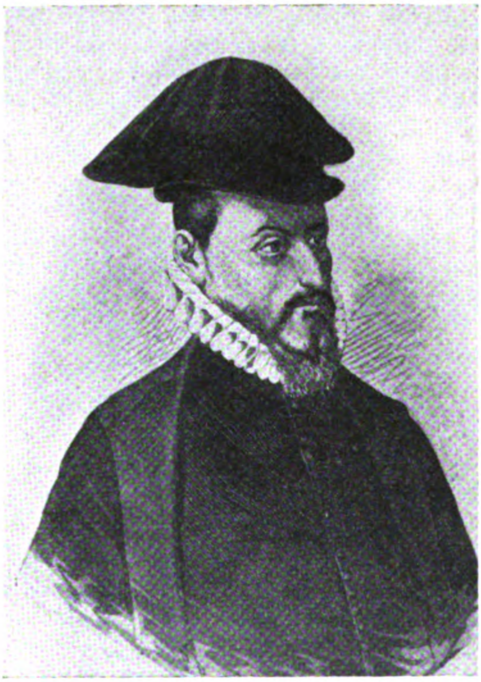
Don Luis de Velasco, Viceroy of New Spain 1550-1564

A new province was created in 1579 called Nuevo León comprising the lands lying east of a line drawn north and south through the towns of San Luis Potosí and Saltillo and extending to the coast of the Gulf of Mexico. Northeast of Saltillo settlements were made in this new province in 1583 at León, now called Cerralvo; and at San Luís, near Monterey, the present capital of Nuevo León. These colonies were not prosperous after Indian slave hunting was prohibited and it was decided in 1590 to establish a settlement at Nuevo Almaden, now Monclova, northwest of San Luís. Luís de Carabajal, the governor and captain-general of Nuevo León, 1579-1590 was removed from office on charges of heresy and his lieutenant, Gaspar Castaño de Sosa, was left in charge of the colony at Nuevo Almaden. Castaño de Sosa attempted to colonize New Mexico in 1590.

The exploration of the Rio Grande Valley of New Mexico in the latter part of the sixteenth century which preceded the colonization in 1598 was brought about through the interest in the country north of the frontier settlements of Nueva Vizcaya in the Upper Conchos Valley and of Nuevo León at Nuevo Almaden. Expeditions for the purpose of taking Indian slaves which were to be sold to work in the mines of Central Mexico had been conducted before 1580 northward beyond the frontier of settlement in the northern provinces of Nueva Vizcaya and Nuevo León. In 1579 an Indian captive, who had been taken to Santa Barbara from the northern country, stated that there were large settlements in the country to the north. It is probable that other reports of the New Mexico Pueblos had been heard by those in charge of the mining camps in the Upper Conchos Valley in the southern part of the present State of Chihuahua.

The expedition organized by the Franciscan friar, Agustín Rodríguez in the summer of 1581 for the purpose of converting the Indians of the lands north of the mines of Santa Barbara led to the Spanish occupation of the Upper Rio Grande Valley seventeen years later. For two years prior to the departure of the party the friar was planning the journey. He succeeded in interesting a number of soldiers and two other friars who supplied their own equipment for the enterprise. Rodríguez' desire to do missionary work among the northern Indians was based on the stories told by an Indian captive, and on the account of the journey along the Rio Grande by Cabeza de Vaca and his companions. Rodríguez went to Mexico City in November, 1580, and obtained permission from the viceroy, who granted the friars the right of taking twenty men with them as a military escort.

The party left Santa Barbara, in the province of Nueva Vizcaya, June 5, 1581. It consisted of Friars Agustín Rodríguez, Francisco Lopez and Juan de Santa María, nine soldiers led by Francisco Sanchez, called Chamuscado, and sixteen Indian servants from the mines of Santa Bárbara. They went down the Conchos Valley to the Rio Grande in the vicinity of the present town of Ojinaga, Chihuahua where they were informed by the Indians that there were settlements up the river. After traveling eighty leagues they came to an Indian pueblo near San Marcial. They named the region the Province of San Felipe. Other villages were visited in the immediate vicinity. These Indians stated that there were other towns farther up the river. The party continued northward along the river passing through a large number of Pueblos until they came to Puaray in the neighborhood of Bernalillo, which was the largest and finest Pueblo they had seen. They then left the river following a branch which was the Jemez where they visited several Pueblos and were told of a number of villages farther up the valley, but they did not visit these because of the desire to explore the country some thirty leagues east of the Rio Grande where, according to the Indian informants, cows existed in large numbers. After traveling the thirty leagues the party came to the plains where they saw herds of buffaloes, and Indians who supported themselves by killing these animals.



DON LORENZO SUÁREZ DE MENDOZA, CONDE DE CORUÑA.
VICEROY OF NEW SPAIN, 1580-1583

The explorers returned to Puaray leaving the Pecos Valley on October 19, 1581. At this time they received word of the death of Friar Santa María who a short time before had started alone and against the advice of the other members of the party for Santa Bárbara to report the discoveries. He had been killed by the Indians east of Sierra Morena which was the name applied to the Manzano Mountains. The Indians at Puaray refused to give Rodríguez' party supplies which were obtained only after a show of force. Fearing an Indian attack the party moved to another Pueblo where three of their horses were killed by the Indians. The leader of the soldiers, Chamuscado, sentenced three of the Indians to be hanged, but the missionaries prevented the execution of the order. From this time until the end of the exploration the party was in constant danger of an Indian attack.

At Puaray the natives told the Spaniards of Indian towns lying west of the river. They set out to visit these which were found to consist of six Pueblos, similar to those in the Rio Grande Valley. At the Cami Valley, which was Zuñi, they were informed that farther west there were five Pueblos in the Asay Valley, but they did not visit the latter on account of a snowfall. These were the Hopi towns. The party then returned to Puaray in the latter part of December, 1581, having in the first six months of the exploration visited the Rio Grande Pueblos as far north as the Galisteo Basin, the Pecos Pueblo and the Zuñi villages of western New Mexico.

Indian reports gave the explorers information of salines. These they visited finding the location to be east of the Manzano Mountains, which they called Sierra Morena, fourteen leagues from Puaray. In the vicinity of the salt deposits they discovered a number of Pueblos built in a similar fashion to the other Pueblos, the several storied, terraced community houses and the Indians raising, as other villagers, maize, beans, gourds and turkeys. The natives informed them of additional Pueblos which they did not see. It seems probable that the expeditions up the Jemez Valley, to the eastern and to Zuñi were made by the soldiers, leaving the friars and a part of the equipment at Puaray. It is certain that this was done in the case of the journey to the salines.

Upon the return of the soldiers to Puaray from the salines they prepared to depart for the settlements in Nueva Vizcaya, because they were too few to attempt to settle the country. The friars, and the Indian servants who had accompanied them from Santa Bárbara, decided to remain at Puaray to continue the conversion of the Indians. The leader of the soldiers died before the party reached Santa Bárbara.

The first official statements concerning the discoveries were made May 16, 1682, by two of the members of the expedition, Pedro de Bustamente and Hernando Gallegos. In the latter part of 1683 a narrative of the explorations was written by Hernando Barrado and Felipe de Escalante, soldiers who had been to New Mexico. They stated that large numbers of humpbacked cows were found in that country; that they had discovered eleven mine prospects; that rich salines had been visited; that the population of the sixty-one Pueblos was about 130,000. Escalante and Barrado further stated that if the king would give them permission they would furnish the equipment necessary for settling the country of New Mexico and converting the Indians.

The viceroy, the Count of Coruña, made his report to the king concerning the Rodríguez expedition, November 1, 1582, in which he informed the Spanish authorities that New Mexico was densely populated and fertile, that a report had been received through a Mexican Indian who had fled from New Mexico of the death of one of the two friars who had remained without military protection at Puaray. The viceroy also sent a recommendation made by Rodrigo del Río de Losa, a prominent official of New Spain, which advised that 300 men, each with seven horses, be sent to pacify and explore the northern country, that they take with them materials for two ships to be used in case they should discover a port on the northern strait; on the South Sea, the Pacific; or the North Sea, the Atlantic. The control of these ports was considered very important because of the sea explorations being made at the time by the French and the English. De Losa further advised that these explorations be carried northward to latitude fifty-seven degrees which was believed to be in the vicinity of China. The members of the expedition, according to De Losa's plan should receive privileges as pay for their discoveries.

In reply to the above letter, the king ordered, March 29, 1583, that a cédula be sent to the viceroy of New Spain authorizing him to make a contract for the pacification, exploration and settlement of New Mexico, but the expedition was to be made without any expense to the royal treasury. The king further ordered that after the contract had been drawn up and before being put into effect, it should be submitted to the council of the Indies in Spain for approval.

The Franciscans in Nueva Vizcaya feared for the safety of their members who had remained in New Mexico without military protection. Several months after the return of the soldiers of the Rodríguez expedition, a Mexican Indian brought a report of the death of Friar López and the probable death of Friar Rodríguez. This news increased the desire of the friars to send a relief party into the northern country. Friar Bernaldino Beltrán of the monastery of Durango was authorized by the superiors of the order to make the journey. Antonio de Espejo offered to pay the expenses of the expedition and this was accepted by the Franciscans. Trouble arose concerning the authorization of the expedition. The viceroy had not given his consent although Juan de Ibarra, the lieutenant-governor of Nueva Vizcaya, had. The *Justicia* of Santa Bárbara ordered that the party be disbanded, but Friar Beltrán obtained a license from Captain Juan Ontiveras, the *alcalde mayor* of Cuatro Ciénegas, which was seventy leagues east of Santa Bárbara. These difficulties occurred just preceding the departure of the party from San Bartolomé, November 10, 1582. When Espejo returned from New Mexico in October, 1583, the *alcalde mayor* of Santa Bárbara brought charges against him, attached part of his estate, confiscated his papers and the Indians that he had brought from New Mexico. The *Audiencia* later ordered that Espejo's property be restored to him.

The party that left San Bartolomé, nine leagues east of Santa Bárbara on November 10, 1582, consisted of Antonio de Espejo, Friar Bernaldino Beltrán, fourteen soldiers, and a number of Mexican Indian servants. The purpose of the expedition was not to explore the country but to prevent the death of Friars Francisco López and Augustín Rodríguez. The expedition went down the Conchos Valley to the Rio Grande and then up the river to Puaray as the Rodríguez expedition had done. When the Rio Grande was reached December 9, 1582, reports were received to the effect that the friars were still alive. For this reason the journey was made as rapidly as possible. The first of the Pueblos in the vicinity of San Marcial was reached on February 1, 1583. Continuing their route northward along the Rio Grande which they called the Rio del Norte the party passed through a province of ten Pueblos which was the first of the provinces of New Mexico. (The name New Mexico seems to have been applied to the Pueblos of the Rio Grande Valley in the summer of 1582 although the name applied by the members of the Rodríguez expedition, San Felipe; and the name given by Espejo, Nueva Andalucía, were probably sometimes used.) The second province was that of the Tiguas, consisting of sixteen Pueblos. The Indians of one of the Pueblos of this province, probably the Pueblo of Puaray, had killed the two friars, the three Mexican Indian boys and the mestizo. One of the reports states that the Indians killed the friars and their servants in order to get possession of the horses, goats, merchandise and ornaments which had been left with the missionaries when the soldiers of the Rodríguez expedition departed. When the Espejo party arrived at the Pueblos of the Province of the Tiguas, the Indians fled to the mountains two leagues from the river fearing that the Spaniards would punish them for killing the friars. Espejo was told that one of the Pueblos of this province had been destroyed by Coronado which fact helps to fix the location of Coronado's Tiguex and Espejo's province of Tiguas. This province of sixteen Pueblos undoubtedly extended from Isleta on the south to Bernalillo on the north.

While among the Piro Pueblos and before entering the province of the Tiguas, the party had been informed by the Indians of the death of the friars and their servants, and of plans by the Tiguas to destroy any Spaniards who might come into the country. Some of Espejo's companions, including Friar Beltrán, wanted to return to Nueva Vizcaya but Espejo and a number of the soldiers who formed a majority desired to continue the expedition. Having heard of a group of Pueblos two days' journey to the east, Espejo with two companions made a side trip during which he visited eleven Pueblos bordering on "the region of the cows called cíbola." The population was estimated to be about 40,000. While on this excursion Espejo discovered that Friar Juan de Santa María had been killed by the Indians of this province, called Maguas. Espejo returned to the Rio Grande and with the rest of the expedition traveled fifteen leagues up the river to Puaray which was reached on February 1, 1583.

Shortly afterward the whole party visited the Keres Pueblos which were six leagues north of Puaray. The Indians gave them food and treated them in a friendly manner. The province consisted of five Pueblos containing 15,000 persons. While here they were told of another province called Los Punames, two days' journey to the west. They found this province to consist of five Pueblos, the chief of which was called Sia. The population was estimated at 20,000. Farther up the Jemez Valley, about six leagues from Sia, they came to the Province of Jemez which comprised seven Pueblos with an estimated population of 30,000.

From the Jemez Pueblos the party journeyed to the southwest fifteen leagues to the Pueblo of Acoma which they found located on a rock more than fifty *estados* in height. The agricultural lands which were irrigated from a medium-sized river were about two leagues from the Pueblo, the population of which was estimated at 6,000. These Indians performed a ceremony with live snakes. After three days at Acoma the journey was continued westward to the province called Cíbola which consisted of six Pueblos and 20,000 people. Here they met three Mexican Indians who had been left at the Zuñi Pueblos forty years before by the Coronado expedition. These Indians said that there was a large lake sixty days' journey to the west where the inhabitants had gold in large quantities. At this time Friar Beltrán and seven others decided to leave the party and return to Nueva Vizcaya, but this was not done immediately although they did not accompany Espejo on the journey west of the Zuñi towns.

With nine companions and 150 Indians from Zuñi, Espejo traveled twenty-eight leagues to the west where he discovered the Hopi villages, which he called the Province of Mohoce. The five Pueblos had a population of 50,000. These Indians at first refused to allow the Spaniards to enter their Pueblos, but after Espejo had given them presents they changed their attitude and in return for the gifts gave Espejo 4,000 cotton *mantas*. The party was again divided at the Hopi villages, five of the soldiers being sent with the presents back to Zuñi while Espejo and the other four with Indian guides went on an expedition for the discovery of mines which the Indians said were forty-five leagues farther west. This trip was made in the first part of May, 1583. Espejo reported that he found ores containing silver, but Lujan, a member of the party, stated that they found no silver and only a little copper. At these mines reports were heard of a large river along which were many settlements located beyond the mountains to the west.

Espejo returned to Zuñi and there found those he had sent back from the Hopi towns and those who had decided to return to Nueva Vizcaya. He tried to persuade the latter to continue the explorations but Friar Beltrán and eight soldiers immediately began the return journey to the mines of Santa Bárbara. Espejo with eight companions left Zuñi and after traveling sixty leagues came again to the Province of Keres. After a journey of two leagues to the east the party came to a province of five Pueblos called Ubates, having a population of 20,000. In this region mines were discovered. One day's march from this group of Pueblos they came to another province called Tamos, having three large Pueblos. These Indians refused to give them food. On that account and also because some of the members of the party were ill, it was decided to return to Nueva Vizcaya. This decision was made in the first part of July, 1583.

In the Province of Tamos a river was discovered which was named the Rio de las Vacas on account of the large number of cows seen along its bank. Espejo determined to follow the valley of this river instead of returning to the Rio Grande. The party traveled 120 leagues down the Pecos Valley where they met Indians of the Jumano tribe who told them that it was twelve days' journey to the mouth of the Conchos River. They crossed from the Pecos to the Conchos and travelled up that valley to the valley of San Bartolomé where they arrived on September 20, 1583.

The viceroy of New Spain received the cédula from the king in August, 1583, authorizing the making of a contract for the exploration, pacification and settlement of New Mexico, a fact which soon became known among the leaders in New Spain. Espejo wrote to the viceroy in the latter part of October, 1583, stating that he intended sending an agent to Spain with the reports of his expedition and for the purpose of asking that the contract for the settlement of New Mexico be given to him. Espejo appointed his son-in-law, Pedro Gonzales de Mendoza, to represent him at the court of Spain. He offered to take 400 men for the work of pacification and settlement and twenty-four friars for the conversion of the native population. He proposed to associate with himself in the enterprise twenty wealthy men; to spend 100,000 ducats in addition to the 10,000 he had already spent in the preliminary exploration; to send one party by way of the Pecos Valley and the other up the Rio Grande Valley; to establish a military post at Acoma for the protection of the country; and to furnish a bond of 200,000 ducats for the faithful fulfilment of the contract. He asked for authority independent of the viceroy.

Espejo failed to gain the contract. The fact that he and his brother were charged with the killing of two men in April of 1581 may have had something to do with the refusal of the Spanish government to grant him the right to settle New Mexico. Antonio de Espejo petitioned the king in the latter part of 1586 asking to be pardoned on the ground that he had taken no part in the killing of the men and because of the services that he had rendered the king in the exploration of New Mexico.

The viceroy of New Spain made a contract for the settlement of New Mexico with Cristóbal Martín on October 26, 1583, which was sent to the council of the Indies in Spain, but for unknown reasons the agreement was not put into effect. Many of the provisions were similar to the later contracts. Martín offered to take between 200 and 300 men into the country and to spend 50,000 pesos in equipping and conducting the expedition. He asked for the title of governor and captain-general of the new province for three lives; grants of *encomiendas* to the soldiers for ten lives; power to appoint all judicial and executive officials; exemption of products from taxation for 100 years; reduction of the royal fifth to a twentieth; arms at the cost of the crown; control of the lands for 1,000 leagues beyond New Mexico; the right to trade with two ships from a port on either ocean; and seven Franciscans to be supported from the royal treasury.

Francisco Díaz de Vargas, the *regidor* of the town of Puebla, wrote to the king in 1584 advising that an exploring rather than a colonizing expedition be sent to New Mexico. He stated that a party of fifty or sixty men would be sufficient for such an undertaking. De Vargas offered to organize and conduct such an expedition and to later colonize the country providing the preliminary survey proved that the country was worth settling. De Vargas' services were not accepted.

Juan Bautista de Lomas y Colmenares, a resident of the mines of Nieves in Nueva Galicia on February 15, 1589, made a contract with the viceroy of New Spain for the colonization of New Mexico. He asked for exclusive rights and jurisdiction over all of the lands beyond the Conchos Valley; the title of governor and captain-general for six lives with a salary of 8,000 ducats; the title of count with 40,000 vassals and three Pueblos as an entailed estate; and the right to fortify ports on either ocean. The contract was approved by the viceroy and sent to the council of the Indies in Spain in 1592 but no action was taken. De Lomas renewed his offer to the viceroy in 1595 but failed to gain the right to colonize New Mexico.

Gaspar Castaño de Sosa in 1590 was lieutenant-governor of the province of Nuevo León and in control of the government following the removal of the governor, Luís de Carabajal. The most northern settlement of the province was Nuevo Almaden and the mines of Quabila near the present town of Monclova in the state of Coahuila. The district was not able to support the population except by slave hunting expeditions which were profitable because the mines farther south furnished a market for the Indians captured. In 1590 the viceroy sent orders to De Sosa prohibiting the slave traffic, and requesting De Sosa to appear before him in Mexico City. Shortly before this De Sosa had fortified the government buildings claiming that it was his duty to defend the province against the agents of the viceroy since he was responsible to the council of the Indies and independent of all authorities in New Spain. However, when Juan de Morlete, the agent of the new viceroy, Luís de Velasco, appeared in Almaden, De Sosa agreed to discontinue the slave hunting expeditions and accompany the agent to Mexico City. Later De Sosa and Morlete agreed that a messenger should be sent instead of De Sosa; that the latter should remain in Nuevo Almaden until the instructions from the viceroy should be received; and that the location of the settlements should not be changed.

Gaspar Castaño de Sosa on July 27, 1590, decided to depopulate the mines of Quabila and the villa of Almaden. According to the testimony of some of the people, they believed that the purpose was to occupy a more profitable area within the province of Nuevo León rather than to colonize New Mexico. There were 170 persons who left Almaden for the purpose of finding a more profitable location. They journeyed to the north six leagues which brought them to the Río de los Nadadores. As the expedition proceeded northward captains were sent out on slave hunting expeditions which was contrary to the orders of the viceroy, but the only source of revenue. These Indians were later released from captivity and returned to their native country by order of the viceroy. De Sosa waited forty-eight days, from the latter part of August until the early part of October, at the Rio Grande, for the return of the messenger with dispatches from the viceroy. At the end of that time he decided to proceed without receiving the message. The lower Pecos River was discovered, named the Río Salado, and followed by De Sosa for several months. The Pecos Pueblo in the Upper Pecos Valley was reached in the latter part of December, 1590. Captain Cristóbal de Heredia with a few men was sent forward in advance of the main party to procure information concerning the country and to get supplies. They entered the Pecos Pueblo where they were peacefully received but later trouble arose and Cristóbal de Heredia and his companions left the Pueblo abandoning their arms and saddles and the food supplies that they had obtained from the Indians. Several of the men were injured in the encounter. De Sosa, with a number of his men, moved north to the Pueblo and attempted to make peace, but finding this impossible made an attack. The Indians defended themselves from the housetops but after a short conflict surrendered. De Sosa placed guards about the Pueblo but the Indians succeeded in escaping, entirely deserting the village. An attempt was made to establish peaceful relations, but the natives refused to make terms. On account of shortage of food, the failure to find wealth, and doubts concerning De Sosa's power to grant lands, some of the members of the expedition asked the leader for permission to return to Nuevo León which he granted.

De Sosa, with a small band of followers, left the camp south of the Pecos Pueblo on January 6, 1591, to explore the northern country. He went to the Pueblos north of Santa Fe and from there north to Taos. He returned southward along the Rio Grande to the Pueblo of Cochití where he turned westward, naming the villages of the Galisteo Basin; San Marcos, San Lucas, and San Cristóbal. This exploration was completed on January 24, 1591, when De Sosa arrived at the camp called Uracca south of the Pecos Pueblo. The entire expedition on February 8, 1591, started for the Pueblos of the Rio Grande Valley, arriving at San Marcos ten days later. In March the headquarters of the expedition were established at Santo Domingo and the Pueblos of San Felipe and Santa Ana were visited as well as the Tigua villages between Bernalillo and Isleta. The latter fled from their towns upon the approach of the Spaniards, fearing that they would be punished for killing the friars of the Rodríguez expedition. Capt. Juan Morlete arrived at Santo Domingo in the early part of the summer of 1591 with orders from the viceroy to arrest De Sosa and his companions for illegally entering the country.

Luis de Velasco, the viceroy, issued instructions on October 1, 1590, to Capt. Juan Morlete authorizing him to raise a force of forty soldiers to go to New Mexico and bring to an end the journey of De Sosa. Morlete was ordered to return to their homes all of the Indians recently sold into captivity from the province of Nuevo León. He was further instructed to make a detailed report on the country in order that the viceroy might have full information concerning the people and the resources of New Mexico. Morlete organized his party at Mazapil, in the northeastern part of the present state of Zacatecas, in the latter part of October. Among those in the company were a number of the former residents of the province of Nuevo León, whose testimony, which was taken after the expedition reached the Rio Grande on January 5, 1591, was not favorable to De Sosa. When Morlete found the camp of De Sosa at Santo Domingo he presented the orders for the arrest of De Sosa and his companions. Morlete took evidence from the members of De Sosa's party on July 10, 1591, at a place forty leagues toward Mexico City from the last village of New Mexico. De Sosa wrote July 27th from the Rio Grande to the viceroy defending his action in the matter. Morlete conducted his prisoners to the City of Mexico where De Sosa and the soldiers of his company confessed.

The viceroy sent the papers in the case to the council of the Indies in Spain, March 29, 1592. This body considered the matter on November 9, and on the following day issued an order referring the punishment of De Sosa and his companions to the *Audiencia* of Mexico and condemning the practice of enslaving the Indians, but saying not a word about the crime committed in making the expedition into New Mexico against the viceroy's orders. This is explained by the following—On November 6, 1591, the viceroy had written to the council of the Indies concerning the De Sosa and Morlete expeditions and the council replied February 23, 1592, stating that it would have been better to have allowed De Sosa to remain in New Mexico and continue the work of settling the country.

The viceroy stated in his letter to the king, November 6, 1591, that he had not been able to find a suitable person who would undertake the colonization of New Mexico at his own expense and that he took it for granted that the enterprise was not to be financed by the royal treasury. De Lomas renewed his application in 1592 for the contract which had been originally approved by the former viceroy, March 11, 1589, and sent to the council of the Indies for final approval but no action was taken by that body upon the petitions of De Lomas. In the early part of 1594 the viceroy made a contract with Francisco de Urdiñola, Jr., lieutenant-governor of Nueva Vizcaya, which he sent to Spain for the final sanction of the council. Urdiñola at this time was charged with the poisoning of his wife and killing several men. On this account the viceroy advised the council that the contract be suspended awaiting the outcome of the criminal proceedings. The council cancelled the contract with Urdiñola and ordered that one be made with some one else recommending Juan de Oñate, "an honorable gentleman of Zacatecas."

The contract made with Oñate included a provision authorizing him to make prisoners of Francisco Leyva de Bonilla and Juan Gutiérrez de Humaña who about 1593 led an unauthorized expedition into New Mexico from Santa Bárbara, Nueva Vizcaya. They had been sent out by the governor of Nueva Vizcaya against the Indians of the northern part of that province and had decided to extend their journey to New Mexico and Quivira. After spending a year among the Pueblos of the Rio Grande they crossed the mountains to the Arkansas and continued their exploration probably to the Platte River. A quarrel developed between the leaders after they reached the plains of the present Kansas resulting in the murder of Bonilla by Humaña. The only known survivor of the expedition was Jusepe Gutiérrez, a Mexican Indian servant of Gutiérrez de Humaña. This Indian told the story of the journey to Juan de Oñate at San Juan Bautista, which was about fifteen miles south of Belen, on February 16, 1599.

The contract, which the king had authorized for the colonization of New Mexico by a cédula received in Mexico City in August, 1583, was finally signed by Juan de Oñate and Viceroy Luis de Velasco on September 21, 1595. It seems that the council of the Indies had given the viceroy the right to put such an agreement into effect without submitting it to the council. One of the provisions stipulated that the expedition must be assembled at Santa Bárbara in Nueva Vizcaya and be prepared to start for New Mexico by March of 1596. Oñate agreed to the changes in the instrument made by Velasco, but the County of Monterey was not satisfied with the contract and made further changes. He annulled the provision which made Oñate independent of the viceroy and the *audiencias* of New Spain; limited the authority for bringing ships to New Mexico; granting of privileges to the members of the expedition; fixing of the tribute to be paid by the Indians; and raising men for the enterprise. Oñate accepted these changes and in the spring of 1596 enlisted in Mexico City, Puebla and the towns of Nueva Galicia the persons required for the undertaking. The expedition proceeded northward through Zacatecas arriving at the Rio de las Nazas in the latter part of July. This camp was twenty leagues south of Santa Bárbara in the central part of the present state of Durango. Oñate was ready to move northward September 9, when he received an order from the viceroy to delay the expedition. The king had issued a cédula, May 8, 1596, instructing the viceroy not to permit Oñate to execute the contract for the coloniztaion of New Mexico.

Pedro Ponce de León petitioned the king of Spain in the early part of 1596 for the privilege of organizing the New Mexico expedition. His offer was more favorable to the king than Oñate's. A comparative statement of the two contracts showed that De León agreed to furnish more men, animals, provisions, ox-carts and other supplies, than did Oñate. The council of the Indies desired that the control of the expedition be given to Pedro Ponce de León and advised the king, April 7, 1596, that since the Oñate contract had not been carried out it would be possible to authorize De León to colonize New Mexico. Although contrary to law, the king signed an agreement September 25, 1596, with Pedro Ponce de León for the settlement of New Mexico. A number of changes were made in this instrument, during the fall of that year, which were favorable to De León, but there seemed to be no absence of confidence in the ability of the contractor to carry out the provisions of the agreement. The council of the Indies on February 18, 1597, informed the king that De León had passed through a period of illness, that he had petitioned for a loan from the government, being unable to raise the money for the expedition, and that the council had received a letter from the viceroy advising that the contract be given to Oñate. The council recommended carrying out of the agreement with Pedro Ponce de León, but the king was not of the same opinion. A cédula was issued, April 2, 1597, ordering the viceroy to authorize Oñate to continue his journey providing he was equipped for the purpose.

When Oñate received instructions to delay the expedition on

September 9, 1596, at Río de las Nazas, he and his friends had already invested 300,000 ducats in the enterprise. Hoping influential officials and circumstances might bring about a change in the unfavorable situation, Oñate moved his camp from Río de las Nazas to the mines of Caxco on November 1, twelve leagues from the river. The expedition with great difficulty was held together at this location until August 1, 1597, when Oñate and his army began their northern journey under authorization of the cédula dated April 2, 1597.

Oñate's colonizing party arrived at San Bartolomé on August 19, and remained there until December 17, when they moved northward five and one-half leagues to San Gerónimo, where the last official inspection was made by Lope de Ulloa, the representative of the viceroy, who had joined the expedition at Zacatecas. A journey of six leagues brought them to the vicinity of the present city of Chihuahua, where they remained until February 7, 1598. Oñate sent Vicente de Zaldívar, February 14, with sixteen men northward to explore a new route to the Rio Grande which would lead them directly north instead of following the Conchos Valley. The main party reached the Conchos Valley on March 15, having travelled toward the northeast about fifty miles. Zaldívar returned after having gone sixty leagues northward and reported that the route to the Rio Grande which he had travelled was a practical one for the entire party to follow. At this time Oñate made his first report to the king, in which he found fault with the viceroy for hindering the progress of the undertaking and asked that the changes made in the terms of the contract by the viceroy, be cancelled.

The New Mexico expedition reached the Rio Grande eight and one-half leagues below the ford of the river where the towns of Juarez, Chihuahua and El Paso, Texas, now stand. Five and one-half leagues down the valley from the ford, Oñate took possession of the Province of New Mexico, April 30, in the name of the king. The settlers crossed the river May 4, 1598, and advanced up the valley sixteen leagues by May 20, where Oñate and sixty men forming an advance party left the main group. They reached Santo Domingo at the mouth of Galisteo Creek, July 7, and there received the submission of thirty-four Pueblos. Four days later Oñate and his sixty companions established headquarters at the Pueblo called Gaypa, which they gave the name of San Juan de los Caballeros because the Indians agreed in a gentlemanly manner to give up their houses on the west side of the Rio Grande to the Spaniards. San Juan continued to be the center of Spanish activities until the villa of San Gabriel was founded in 1601 south of the mouth of the Chama River on the west bank of the Rio Grande. Vicente de Zaldívar of the advance party was sent down the river to guide the main force to the Pueblo of San Juan, which arrived on August 18, 1598, at the mouth of the Chama. Between July 11 and August 18 Oñate visited all of the Pueblos within a radius of fifty miles of San Juan, which included Taos on the north, Pecos to the east and Jemez to the west.

When the colonists arrived, with the friars and Indians, they began the construction of the first church built in New Mexico. Mass was celebrated in the completed church on September 8 and on the following day the comisario of the Franciscans, Friar Alonso Martínez, divided the Pueblos of New Mexico into eight missionary provinces assigning friars to them. The Tegua (Tewa) Pueblos in the vicinity of San Juan were to be ministered to by Friar Martínez; Friar Francisco de San Miguel was assigned to the province of Pecos, which included the Pueblos east of the Manzano Mountains; Friar Juan de Rosas to the Queres (Keres) province, which included Santo Domingo, San Felipe, Cochití and the Pueblos of the Galisteo basin; Friar Juan Claros to the Tigua (Tiwa) district, consisting of the Rio Grande Pueblos from Bernalillo to San Marcial; Friar Andrés Corchado to the Province of Trias (Sia) comprising the lower Jemez Valley Pueblos, Acoma, Zuñi and the Hopi towns; Friar Alonso de Lugo was designated to serve the Jemez province of the upper Jemez Valley; Friar Cristóbal de Salazar to the Tewa Pueblos north of Santa Fe, known as the Province of Tehua; and Francisco de Zamorato, the Province of Picuries which in addition to the Picuris Pueblo included Taos and the Apache to the north and east.

The first expedition to the plains of the Arkansas left San Juan on September 15, 1598, and returned on November 8. The party consisting of sixty men led by Vicente Zaldívar went to explore the land of Quivira and to hunt buffalo. They reported that traces were found of the Humaña and Bonilla journey at twenty-four and thirty-six leagues from San Juan; that as many as 100,000 buffaloes were seen in a single herd; that they crossed two large rivers while travelling seventy leagues in a northeastern direction; and that the only people they met were a wandering group of Apache, who used dogs to transport their teepees and some villagers living in grass houses.

Some of the members of the Oñate colony were dissatisfied and desired to return to Nueva Vizcaya. The commander condemned several of the colonists to death by strangulation because they organized a band for the purpose of fleeing from the country, but the sentence was not carried out. He said they had become discontented when they did not find whole plates of silver scattered about on the ground.

The first South Sea expedition led by Oñate, consisting of about 100 men, left San Juan on October 6, 1598. This was more than a month before the return of Vicente Zaldívar from the plains of Arkansas. Oñate gave instructions that as soon as Vicente de Zaldívar should arrive at San Juan, a band of thirty soldiers under the command of Juan de Zaldívar should be dispatched by way of Acoma to re-inforce the South Sea expedition. Oñate's party passed southward from San Juan visiting the following Pueblos: Cañada de los Teguas, San Marcos, Tuerto, Puaray, and those of the salines east of the Manzano Mountains including Abó and the three of the Jumano. In all of these villages the authority of the king was recognized by the native population. The party then returned to Fuaray and a short time later started for the Pueblo of Acoma, arriving on October 27. The Indian chief, Zutucapan, planned to take the life of Oñate by inducing him to enter one of the kivas, but the leader refused the invitation and thus probably prevented trouble with the Indians of Acoma at this time. After receiving the submission of the Pueblo of Acoma to the authority of the king and having secured supplies of corn, beans and turkeys the Spaniards travelled westward to the Zuñi towns, which they found to consist of six Pueblos. From Zuñi Captain Farfán was sent to examine the salines which he reported were very extensive and contained salt of a fine quality. A few days before Oñate started for the Hopi villages, a group of the soldiers went out from Zuñi to recover some horses. They returned, bringing with them Captain Villagrá whom they found almost dead, without food, arms or horse. He had just returned from Santa Bárbara, where he had been sent by Oñate in pursuit of deserters and while traveling from Acoma to Zuñi had fallen into a pit.

Oñate's party set out for the Hopi towns on November 8, 1598, from which they were ready to return to Zuñi ten days later, in order to await re-inforcements which Juan de Zaldívar had been ordered to bring from San Juan. Before leaving the Hopi Pueblos, Oñate sent Captain Farfán with a small command to investigate the reported mines which were said to exist about thirty leagues west of the Hopi villages. Captain Farfán reported at Zuñi in the early part of December that he had discovered rich mines in the vicinity of the present Bill Williams Fork of the Colorado River.

Shortly after the return to Farfán, Oñate decided that since the command under Juan de Zaldívar had not arrived, he would go back to San Juan in order that all the people might be together for the celebration of Christmas and to organize a larger party for the trip to the South Sea. On the second day after leaving Zuñi, some of the soldiers of Juan de Zaldívar's company joined the expedition and reported the killing of their commander and fourteen soldiers in an uprising of the Acoma Indians. The command of Juan de Zaldívar had stopped at Acoma on its way to Zuñi and at first were well treated, but later the Indians made a surprise attack which resulted in the expulsion of the Spaniards as well as the deaths mentioned above. The opponents of Oñate claimed the trouble was due to the mistreatment of the Indians by the soldiers of Juan de Zaldívar and the excessive demands made for food and clothing. Villagrá stated that the uprising was traceable to the designs of the leading chief, Zutucapan, for ridding the country of the Spaniards. Some of the men in Zaldívar's troop leaped off the cliff at Acoma and were only slightly injured.

A matter of first importance had to be attended to immediately after the holiday festivities had been concluded, namely: the punishment of the Indians of the Pueblo of Acoma. Oñate and some of the leaders believed that it was necessary to destroy the Acoma Pueblo not only as proper chastisement for the Acoma Indians, but also as a warning to the natives of other Pueblos. However, some of the leading men of the colony reported that the severity of the punishment had not been justified and that the action created the opinion among other Pueblos that the Spaniards were cruel and unjust. Vicente de Zaldívar, the brother of the leader who had been killed at Acoma, was ordered, January. 12, 1599, by Oñate, after legal proceedings had been taken against Acoma, to proceed to the Pueblo and administer the punishment. When the Indians refused to surrender, Vicente de Zaldívar succeeded in getting a foothold on top of the rock of Acoma and the battle of Acoma followed, lasting from the afternoon of one day until the evening of the next. After the surrender of the Indians a number of the people who had submitted were killed. Upon seeing this, many attempted to defend themselves by remaining in the kivas and houses which the Spaniards set on fire. After the Indians surrendered the second time all the men over twenty-five were condemned to have one foot cut off and to twenty years of personal servitude; the boys between the ages of twelve and twenty-five to twenty years of slavery; and the women over the age of twelve were condemned to twenty years of personal servitude. The boys under twelve were to be taken care of by Vicente de Zaldívar and the girls under twelve were to be protected by Friar Alonso Martínez. After the sentence had been carried out the Pueblo of Acoma was destroyed. This, however, did not bring about the end of this unique Pueblo for it had been re-established before 1630 and exists at the present time in the same location as in the days of the battle.

In July of 1599 Vicente de Zaldívar started on an expedition to the South Sea which lasted three months. He stated that when within three days journey of the sea he was forced to turn back on account of the unfriendly conduct of the Indians and the mountainous nature of the country. When the party arrived at the Jumano Pueblos, the inhabitants refused to furnish any supplies. The conduct of the Jumano was reported to Oñate who led a group of soldiers to the Pueblos and destroyed a number of their houses as a punishment for their insubordination.

Plans were made in the spring of 1601 for a third western expedition to discover a port on the South Sea. It was to consist of 100 men and to be led by Oñate, but a change was made in favor of an extensive exploration of the country to the northeast. With seventy men the commander left San Gabriel June 23, 1601, hoping to reach the northern strait, the "North Sea" and to find wealthy Indian communities. He travelled along the Canadian Valley until the plains were reached when the party turned north to the Arkansas Valley. Here Oñate found the Quivira that had disappointed Coronado consisting of teepees and grass houses, in the vicinity of Wichita, Kansas. The unfriendly attitude of the Indians and the approach of winter probably were the reasons for not extending the explorations to the lands north of Quivira.

Oñate's exploring expeditions and attacks upon Acoma and the Jumano Pueblos were not approved by the settlers. While he was absent on the Quivira journey a large number of the colonists as well as a majority of the Franciscans returned to Santa Bárbara, Nueva Vizcaya where they filed fifty-seven charges against their commander. When Oñate arrived in San Gabriel, after the journey to the plains, November 24, 1601, he found the settlement almost deserted. Vicente de Zaldívar was immediately sent to Nueva Vizcaya to arrest the colonists and provide for their return to New Mexico.

Zaldívar was also instructed to go to Spain for the purpose of gaining assistance from the king for the exploration of the country beyond Quivira. Before the negotiations ended, Alonso de Oñate took charge of the plans in Spain for procuring additional support for the New Mexico project. The cédula dated February 7, 1602, conferred the title of *adelantado* upon Oñate and his son after him, and listed extensive privileges that were to accompany the office. On June 12, 1602, Zaldívar was given the right to enlist in Spain forty soldiers and ship-builders, two expert pilots and to take with him 100 guns, 100 coats of mail, 100 swords, 100 cuishes, fifty helmets and fifty leather jackets. The right to levy tribute upon the Indians was granted to Oñate by a cédula issued July 4, 1602. The amount levied could not exceed ten *reales* for each native. Four days later the king issued an order which made Oñate independent of the viceroy and *audiencias* although it provided that appeals in matters of government and justice could be made to the *audiencias* of Nueva Galicia. When the king received the accusations of the colonists made against Oñate which included the charge of having murdered Captain Pablo de Aguilar and of having been a party to the murder of Alonso de Sossa by Vicente de Zoldívar, he ordered the viceroy to investigate the government of New Mexico secretly and make changes necessary to preserve the conquest. The action taken, if any was taken, is not known. Several additional concessions were made to Alonso de Oñate in order to assist him in carrying re-inforcements to New Mexico, the last being in July 1604, but there is no information to the effect that the men and supplies ever left Spain.

The third western expedition in search of a port on the South Sea was finally organized by Oñate at San Gabriel, October 7, 1604. The declining strength of the colony is probably indicated by the fact that the party consisted of but thirty soldiers. They went to Zuñi and from there to the Hopi towns. After crossing several rivers they came to a large one called Buena Esperanza flowing south which they followed in that direction. About twenty leagues before reaching the Gulf of California a large river was discovered flowing into the Buena Esperanza from the east which they called Río de Nombre de Jesus. The explorers reached the head of the Gulf of California on Janury 25, 1605, and named the harbor the Port of Conversion of San Pablo. From what the Indians said it was concluded that California must be an island and not a peninsula as had been stated by earlier explorers. Along the way they had met many Pueblos of Indians who were uniformly friendly. Among the Indians whom they met when the Colorado was first reached they were told of the Lake of Copalla where the Indians wore bracelets of gold. This country of gold was said to be fourteen days journey north of west from where they were. After taking possession of the port on the Gulf of California, Oñate began the homeward trip following the same route taken on the march westward, arriving at San Gabriel April 25, 1605.

The viceroy, the Marquis of Montesclaros with the advice of the officials of the government of New Spain made a secret report March 31, 1605, on the New Mexico settlement and the conduct of Oñate. It seems that this report was the cause of the king's order June 7, 1606, instructing the viceroy to forbid any further explorations in New Mexico, to order Oñate to appear in Mexico City, and to appoint someone else as governor of the colony.

Oñate sent his resignation to the viceroy August 24, 1607, probably before that officer had attempted to carry out the above order from the king. Oñate stated that unless re-inforcements were sent the colony would be abandoned by the settlers on June 30, 1608. The viceroy appointed Juan Martínez de Montoya, a resident of the New Mexico colony at San Gabriel, acting governor, February 27, 1608. Although Oñate's resignation was accepted he was instructed to remain in New Mexico until 1609. The *cabildo* of San Gabriel rejected Montoya as governor and appointed Oñate's son, Cristóbal. This arrangement was not satisfactory to the viceroy, who, after official consultation with the principal officers of New Spain, decided to appoint Pedro de Peralta as governor, to send twelve soldiers to the colony, and to allow Oñate to return to New Spain. The instructions to the new governor were issued on March 30, 1609. Peralta was ordered among other things to establish a new villa, which was Santa Fe. It is therefore probable that the Villa of Santa Fe was founded before the end of the year 1609.

The Spanish authorities in the period between 1605 and 1609 had on several occasions discussed the advisability of abandoning New Mexico. The king had ordered discoveries to cease

June 17, 1606. The viceroy, March 7, 1608, recommended the abandonment of New Mexico to which the king replied, June 17, 1608, that the settlements should be continued, although a few months later, September 13, the problem of determining the fate of the New Mexico colony was left entirely in the hands of the viceroy by the king. The acts of the viceroy March 30, 1609, in attempting to strengthen settlements by sending soldiers and supplies were approved by the council of the Indies, September 9, 1609, and orders were issued for the continuation of explorations northward from New Mexico.

Oñate was permitted to leave New Mexico by order of the viceroy, March 30, 1609, who appointed Pedro de Peralta as his successor. Five years later Oñate, Vicente de Zaldívar, Gaspar pérez de Villagrá and several others were sentenced for crimes committed in New Mexcio. Oñate was charged with a number of murders, with mistreating the Indians in general, of cruelly punishing the Acoma and Jumano Indians, with lack of respect for the friars, with ignoring the government officials who accompanied the expedition, with describing the country as fertile when it was poor and barren, with refusing to obey the royal decrees sent to him. The others were charged with various crimes and all were sentenced by the viceroy in the City of Mexico, May 13, 1614. Oñate's sentence included perpetual banishment from New Mexico; exile from Mexico City and the land within a radius of five miles for four years; and the payment of 6,000 Castillian ducats.

The council of the Indies on May 4, 1624, made a second report to the king on the petition of Juan de Oñate in which he asked for a governorship, the robes of one of the military orders and rents from the royal treasury. The *audiencias* of Guadalajara and Mexico had recommended that robes and profits of the military order be granted him, but that the rents from the royal treasury be withheld. The council merely submitted the facts leaving the decision to the king, who provided for the continuation of the office of *adelantado* of New Mexico for another generation. This order was never executed according to the statement written on the back of the original document.

CHAPTER XII

NEW MEXICO, A FRONTIER MISSION FIELD, 1609-1680

The office of governor and captain-general of New Mexico during the period 1609-1680 was held by the following (The exact dates of each administration are not known. The archives of Santa Fe were destroyed in 1680, the Franciscan archives in 1857, and only a few documents for this period of New Mexico history have been found in the Mexican and Spanish archives):

Pedro de Peralta	1609-1613
Bernardino de Cevallos	1617
Juan Eulate	1621
Felipe Zotylo	1621-1628
Francisco Manuel de Silva Nieto	1629
Francisco de la Mora Ceballos	1632
Francisco Martínez de Baeza	1636
Fernando de Argüello	1640
Luís de Rosas	1641
Valdés	1642
Alonso Pacheco de Heredia	1643
Fernando de Argüello	1645
Luís de Guzmán	1647
Hernando de Urgate y la Concha	1650
Juan de Samaniego	1653-1654
Enrique de Avila y Pacheco	1656
Bernardo López de Mendizábal	1661
Diego de Peñalosa Briceño	1661-1664
Fernando de Villanueva	
Juan de Medrano	
Juan de Miranda	
Juan Francisco de Treviño	1675

New Mexico in the seventeenth century was continued as a Spanish province in order to bring about the conversion of the Indians of the Pueblos, which was supported by the royal treasury at tri-ennial expense of 40,000 to 60,000 pesos. The total Spanish population at the end of the century was only 2,000 which shows that the colony had not become an important source of wealth. It was also considered important as a means of protecting the Spanish provinces south of New Mexico from Indian attacks although the garrison at Santa Fe was always small.

The mining camps, mission stations and stock ranches of Nueva Vizcaya, including the present Mexican states of Durango and Chihuahua were hindered in their development in the seventeenth century by a series of Indian wars. The first of these occurred in 1617 when the Jesuit Missions of Durango were destroyed. About the middle of the century after the Franciscans and Jesuits had begun to establish missions in Chihuahua the Tarahumares and other Indians between 1644 and 1652 destroyed the missions. Parral, in the southern part of the present State of Chihuahua, was established as a garrisoned town in 1632 and the governor of Nueva Vizcaya spent a part of his time at this important place directing the plans for the protection of the frontier. Missionaries, miners and settlers had occupied the country southwest of El Paso prior to 1680 at Janos and Casas Grandes which was governed by an *alcalde mayor*.

The Jesuits began to establish missions in the present State of Sinaloa early in the sixteenth century and by 1650 had extended their missionary activities to the Upper Sonora Valley. Between 1636 and 1650 mission stations were established between Ures and Arizpe and Captain Perea was appointed *justicia mayor* of the district called Nueva Andalucia with his capital at the mining town of San Juan. The region now known as Sonora in 1680 had a population of 500 Spanish families who were engaged in mining and stock-raising.

The province of Nuevo León during the seventeenth century also continued to be an undeveloped frontier colony. Mines were operated and towns founded between Pánuco and Monterey during the period of 1626-1664 when Martín de Zavala controlled, assisted by Alonso de León. The first settlement at Almaden was not re-established after the abandonment of Gaspar Castaño de Sosa in 1590 until 1674 when an *alcalde mayor* was appointed for the district of Coahuila. In the following year Fernando del Bosque and Friar Juan Larios made a tour of the Indian tribes north of the Rio Grande. A new frontier province between Nuevo León and Nueva Vizcaya called Coahuila was created in 1687 and a presidio was established at Monclova near the site of the earlier settlement of Almaden.

Although there were developments in the seventeenth century that tended to settle the lands lying between New Mexico and Nueva Vizcaya, and Nuevo León, they were not sufficient to break down the isolation of the northern provinces. The Indian wars of Nueva Vizcaya not only hindered the peaceful exploitation of that area, but also made communication between Mexico City and New Mexico dangerous and expensive necessitating escorts for supplies to the New Mexico missions.

The Spanish colony of New Mexico from 1609 to 1680 continued to have a precarious existence suffering from the want of food supplies and military equipment, plots of the Pueblos and attacks from the Apache. The missionaries and settlers were widely scattered along the Rio Grande Valley from San Marcial on the south to Taos on the north. At times the missionaries, soldiers and settlers were stationed as far west as the Hopi villages in the present State of Arizona and as far east as the Estancia Valley. The abandonment of the colony was often discussed because of the cost of supporting the isolated communities, but retained because the province was considered a protection for the mining states farther south in what is now the north central part of Mexico. A number of the Pueblos went out of existence during this period in some instances due to the desire of the friars to gather the Indians in larger communities and in others to the raids of the Apache. The Spanish population at the close of the epoch was 2,000, which showed that the settlements in the colony had not become large and prosperous communities during the seventeenth century.

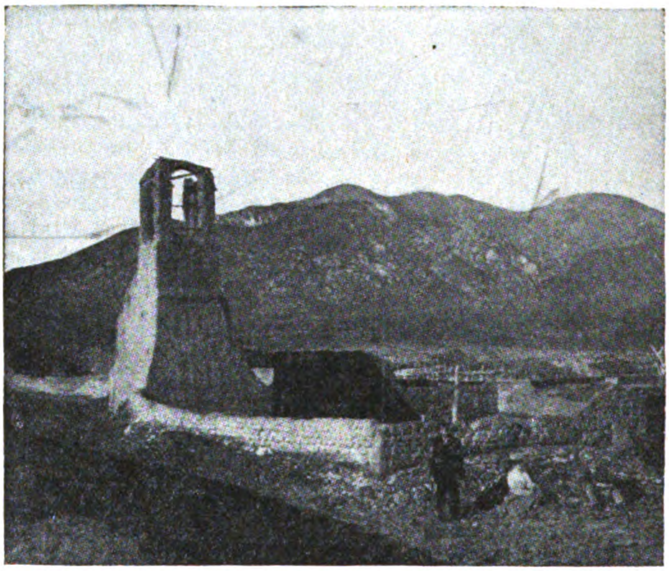


Photo by Museum Staff.

MISSION RUIN AT TAOS

The civil and ecclesiastical authorities had had disputes over jurisdiction and other matters growing out of the treatment of the Indians prior to 1621 as is shown by the instructions of the viceroy sent to Governor Juan de Eulate dated February 5, 1621. He was ordered to strictly obey the law concerning the rights of the eccelsiastical authorities. The missionaries had complained that the governor interfered with the election of the officers in the Pueblos. The viceroy ordered that the elections should be held on January 1 of each year and that the governor, *alcaldes*, *topiles*, and *fiscales* should be chosen without interference from the civil or ecclesiastical authorities. In all matters pertaining to the welfare of the baptized Indians and the colony in general, the governor was ordered to consult with the principal religious men, the Cabildo of the Villa of Santa Fe and the principal soldiers. New tributes were not to be assessed upon the newly converted Pueblos without the consent of the viceroy to be given after he had received full information concerning the matter. The Pueblos of Zuñi and Hopi were not to be asked to pay tributes because they had received no benefits from the church nor protection from the government against their enemies. The governor was ordered to see that the custodio should send a friar to each Pueblo on Sundays and feast days to say mass and conduct other religious services.

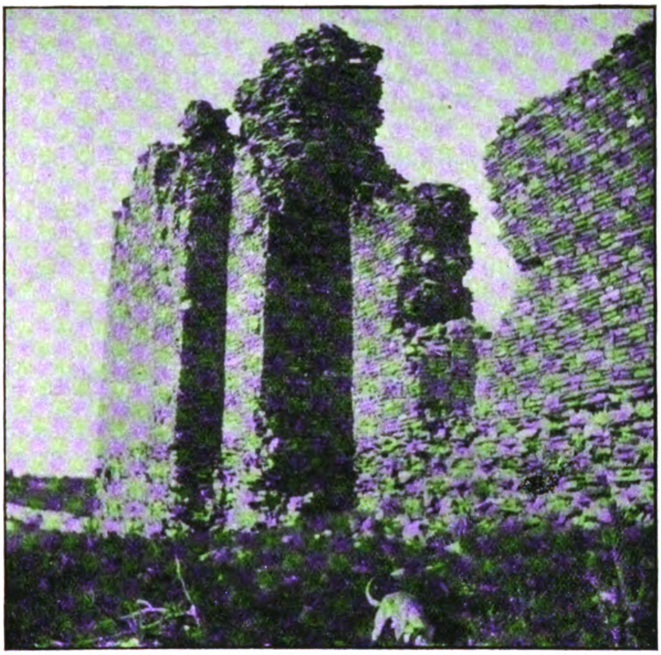


Photo by **Museum Staff.**

ABO MISSION RUIN

Instructions were also given by the viceroy concerning the treatment of the Indians. He ordered that the practice of cutting off the hair of the Indians, which had caused some of them to flee from their Pueblos, be discontinued; also that the Spaniards should not use the Indians for carrying heavy loads because this had been prohibited by royal order. In order to prevent harm to the crops of the Indians the viceroy ordered that cattle ranches and the horses of the soldiers must not be closer than three leagues to the cultivated fields of the Indians. To remedy the evils growing out of the *repartimiento* system, that is, the dividing of the Indians among the Spanish settlers, not more than eight out of 100 from a single Indian community were to be allotted to the colonists. The natives were to be paid for their services one-half *real* a day and board or one *real* without board. The viceroy stated that the practice of giving Indian women to the Spaniards of Santa Fe in *repartimiento* for personal service should be discontinued as it was contrary to the laws. Finally the governor was instructed to pay attention to the complaints against the settlers made by the missionaries in the name of the Indians in order that justice be done to all.

The missionaries had complained to the government in Mexico that they had been forced to pay the soldiers who formed the escort for the supplies which had to be brought from Mexico City. The viceroy ordered that the soldiers who held *encomienda* grants should make up the escort. The governor was also instructed to furnish escorts to the friars when visiting the Pueblos for the purpose of holding religious services.

In reply to the request for the establishment of a parish church in the Villa of Santa Fe the viceroy said that the same was unnecessary because there was in the villa a church of the order of Saint Francis.

It had been reported to the viceroy that the governor had acquired some large as well as small cattle ranches in the province. He was informed that it was against the law for a governor to hold property within the province which he was administering.

In former communications the governor had asked for permission to rebuild the fort, church and public buildings on a more desirable site than that occupied at the time and also requested that supplies for repairing the buildings, ammunition and agricultural implements be provided to assist the colony. The viceroy refused to allow any change in the location of the public buildings without being further informed concerning the plans. He did agree to furnish the following supplies: 160 pounds of iron, 200 pounds of powder, 600 pounds of lead, 40 pounds of nails, 200 pick axes, 100 hatchets, 30 adzes, 12 saws, 20 shovels, 12 planes, 80 plowshares, and 500 sickles for reaping. The plowshares and sickles were to be carefully distributed so as to be of the greatest advantage to the royal treasury. This document of February 5, 1621, gives a clear picture of the problems that arose in the colony during the first twenty-three years of its existence. Due to the isolated location of New Mexico the majority of these administrative difficulties continued as unsolved problems until the beginning of American control.

In the early part of the seventeenth century the Province of New Mexico was the scene of an extensive missionary enterprise on the part of the Franciscan order. The *comisario*, Alonso Peinado, and nine friars made up the force in the field in 1609. Eleven churches had been built and 14,000 Indians converted by 1617. Nine years later there were twenty friars serving in New Mexico; the churches numbered forty-three; and the number of Christian Indians 34,000. In 1630 the *Custodia de la Conversion de San Pablo,* which had been established in 1621 as an administrative subdivision of the Province of the Holy Evangel of the Franciscan Order, was administered by fifty friars who, according to the reports of the time, had converted 86,000 Indians.

The three friars who wrote accounts of missionary activities in the early part of the seventeenth century were: Gerónimo de Zarate Salmerón, Alonso de Benavides and Estevan de Perea. Salmerón served in New Mexico from 1617 until 1626 at Sia, Sandia, Acoma, and Jemez, where he converted 6,566 natives. He returned to Mexico City in 1626 and there wrote his *Relaciones de Nuevo Mejico,* probably in 1629. The Custodia de San Pablo, the Franciscan administrative subdivision comprising New Mexico, was created in 1621 and Alonso de Benavides was appointed as the first Custodio. He took with him to the province in 1622 twenty-six additional friars with whose assistance during the seven following years Benavides founded many missions and built a large number of churches at the Pueblos. In 1626 he reported the need of more workers and in the following year the king ordered thirty friars sent to the Custodia de San Pablo. The chief of this band of friars, which left Mexico City, September 4, 1628, was Friar Estevan de Perea. The government furnished an escort of twelve soldiers to protect the party on the hazardous journey to the Rio Grande Valley. The arrival of these missionaries made possible the extension of the work of the missions to Pueblos and tribes east, west and north of the valley missions.

Shortly after the arrival of Perea, Benavides returned to Mexico City. The Franciscan Order believing that his report should be presented in person to the king sent him to Spain, the purpose being to impress upon the home government the importance of increasing the aid given the New Mexico missions. Benavides arrived in Madrid August 1, 1630, and immediately following his *Memorial on New Mexico* was presented to the king. In it was given an account of the various groups of Pueblos, the missionary work that had been accomplished, the numerous tribes bordering the Rio Grande Valley, the climate and the resources of the land, which he pictured as very pleasant and rich. This *Memorial,* consisting of about 100 pages, was printed in Spanish in the same year that it was presented to the king, 1630. It was reprinted in Dutch and French in 1631 and in Latin and German in 1634. Two years after the publication of Benavides' Memorial, the Custodio Estevan de Perea wrote an account of the conversion of the Indians west of the Rio Grande at Acoma and Zuñi and in the following year, 1633, he wrote a second report describing the conversion of the Hopi Pueblos. Perea continued in control of the missions until 1635. It seems that by that time almost all of the Indians who could be reduced had been brought under control, although churches were rebuilt and some new missions were established after that date as in the case of the new church at Tabira and the missions in the El Paso district.

Under normal development missions were not only centers for the Christianization of the Indians but also localities in which settlers could find homes. The latter furnished protection for the missionaries. In New Mexico the colonists were so few in numbers, particularly at the missions which were some distance from the Rio Grande, that a raid from the nomadic tribes or an uprising of the natives of the Pueblos might at any time result in the death of the friar and the destruction of the mission. The missionary at Taos, Pedro de Miranda, and two soldiers were killed December 28, 1631. For some unknown reason the Indians of the Pueblo of Taos deserted their village in 1650 and settled at a place called Cuartelejo in the northwestern part of the present state of Kansas. These Indians were later brought back to New Mexico by Juan de Archuleta.

Two missions had been established at the Jemez Pueblos between 1616 and 1622, but these were deserted in the latter year when the natives left their villages on account of famine and assaults by the Navaho. One of the earliest plans for an uprising against the Spaniards was arranged by the Jemez Indians in the years following the murder of the governor, Luis de Rosas, whose death was supposedly due to a quarrel between the civil and ecclesiastical authorities and which weakened the respect of the Indians for the Spaniards. Between 1643 and 1646 the Jemez planned in conjunction with the Navaho to drive the Spanish from the Jemez Valley. The plot was discovered and twenty-nine Indian leaders were hanged for their connection with it. A more extensive scheme for revolt was originated by the Jemez Indians in 1650, which not only included the Navaho but also the Pueblos of Isleta, Alameda, San Felipe and Cochiti. The settlements were to be attacked on Thursday of holy week in order to surprise the Spaniards. The plot was discovered, nine Indians were hanged and a number sold into slavery.

Probably the most difficult of the mission areas was the western one including Acoma, Zuñi and Hopi villages. Juan Ramírez of the Perea party, after some hostile demonstrations on the part of the Indians, succeeded in establishing a mission on the Rock of Acoma in 1629. In the same year the first party was led to Zuñi and the Hopi towns. The group which left Santa Fe, June 22, 1629, consisted of Friars Estevan Perea, Roque de Figueredo, Augustín de Cuellar and Francisco de la Madre de Díos; the governor of New Mexico, Francisco Manuel de Silva, and thirty soldiers. Missions were established at Halona in the vicinity of the present Zuñi Pueblo and at Hawwikku fifteen miles down the Zuñi Valley near the present Indian village of Ojo Caliente. Farther west at the Hopi village of Awatobi, Friar Francisco de Porras with three others founded a mission

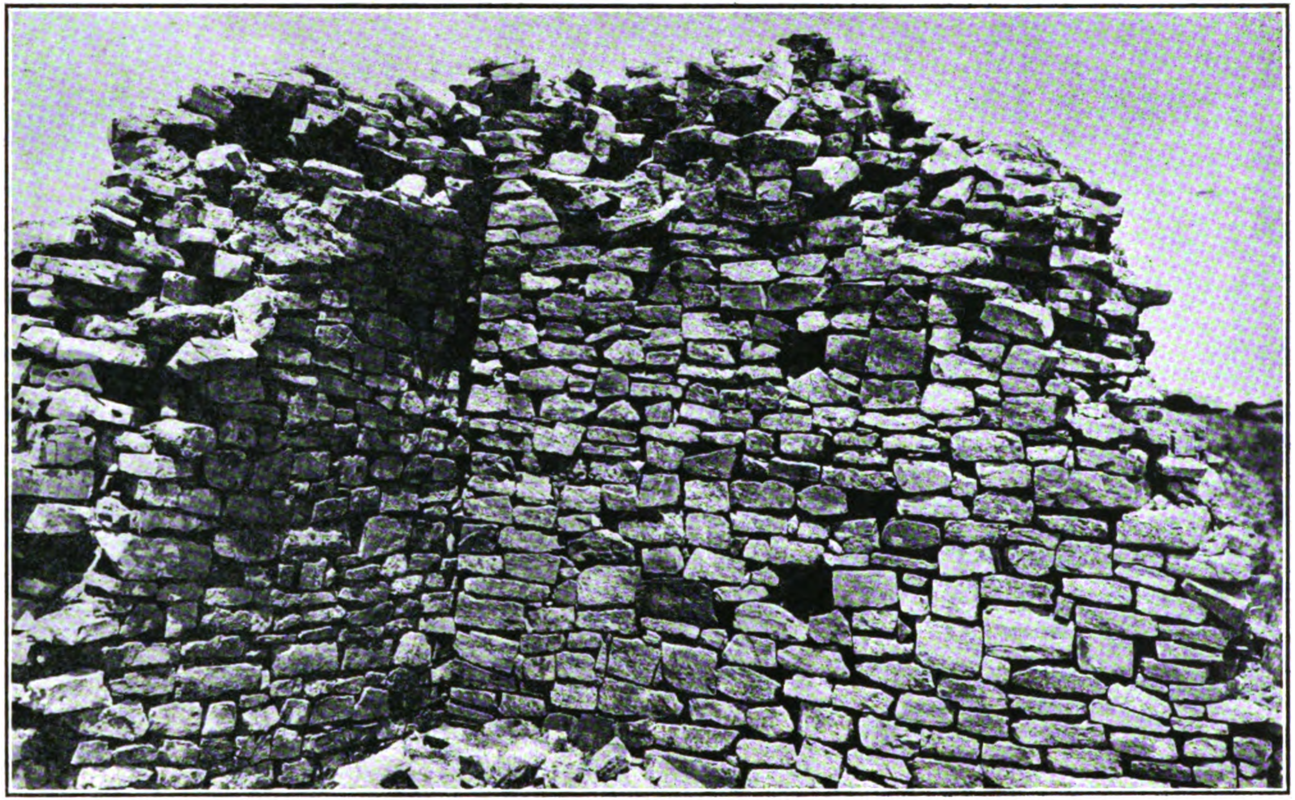


Photo by Museum Staff.

MISSION WALL AT TABIRA OR GRAN QUIVIRA

on August 20, 1629. A few years later, June 28, 1633, some of the Indian leaders succeeded in bringing about the death of Friar Porras by poisoning him. Early in the previous year two of the missionaries serving in the Zuñi Pueblos met their death at the hands of the Indians. Francisco de Letrado and Martin de Arvide were at Hawwikku, the latter having been assigned to bring about the conversion of the Zipias. Friar Arvide left Zuñi for his new field and was killed, probably by some of the Zuñi Indians on February 27, 1632. Five days before, February 22, the Indians of Hawwikku had killed Friar Letrado. In March of the same year a military command was sent to Zuñi to punish the Indians for having killed the missionaries.

Inscription Rock contains several records relating to the events above. The Spaniards called this rock El Morro. It is a large butte with perpendicular walls 215 feet in height with a space large enough on top to have been the seat of two prehistoric Pueblos. It was on the Indian trail between Acoma and Zuñi; fifty miles from the former and thirty miles from the latter. Expeditions regularly camped in the vicinity of the butte because water was obtainable there. The soft smooth sandstone of the sides of the cliff made it possible for those who were so inclined to leave a record on the wall of having passed the rock. The expedition of Governor Silva and Friar Perea of 1629 carved into the face of the rock comparatively long inscriptions on their return from Zuñi. They read as follows: "The most illustrious Sir and Captain-General of the Provinces of New Mexico for the King our Master, passed by here on the return from the villages of Zuñi on the twenty-ninth of July of the year sixteen hundred and twenty-nine; and them [the Indians] he put in peace at their request [they] asking his favor as vassals of his Majesty. And anew they gave obedience; all of which he did with persuasiveness, zeal and prudence, like such a most Christian [effaced], such a careful and gallant soldier of unending and exalted memory." Eleven days later a second inscription was made concerning the expedition of the same governor: "Here passed the Governor Don Francisco Manuel de Silva Nieto, whose indubitable prowess and valor have already conquered the impossible, with wagons of Our Lord the King, a thing which he only accomplished, August 9, [One Thousand] Six Hundred, Twenty and Nine. That [it be seen] that I passed to Zuñi and carried the faith." After the death of the two friars at Zuñi in February of 1632, Governor Francisco de la Mora Ceballos sent to Zuñi a command under Tomás de Albizu. A soldier named Luján carved the following inscription on El Morro: "They passed on the 23 of March of 1632 years to the avenging of the death of Father Letrado." Four years later another party passed, probably to subdue the Zuñi Indians and left the following record: "The sarjento mayor, the Captain Juan de Archuleta, the Lieutenant Diego Martín Barba and the Alferez Augustín de Ynojos pass by here in 1636."

After the killing of Father Letrado in 1632 the Zuñi Indians fled to their place of refuge, Thunder Mountain, where they remained until 1635 when they again settled in the valley. In 1670 there were two friars stationed at the Zuñi Pueblos. Nomadic tribes, Apache or Navaho, destroyed the Pueblo of Hawwikku on October 7, 1670, and killed Friar Pedro de Avila y Ayala, whose remains were recovered by Friar Juan de Galdo and buried at Halona.

The Piro Pueblos lying along the Rio Grande between Belen and San Marcial and those of the same group east of the Manzano Mountains, as well as the Tiwa Pueblos of that area, had missions established by 1630. The Piro of the Rio Grande decreased during the century from fourteen Pueblos to four. The missions at Senecú, Socorro, Alamillo and Sevilleta were founded about 1630. Some of the fourteen Pueblos may have been deserted as a part of the policy of the friars to concentrate the Indian population in a few large villages where they could be protected, but some of the villages no doubt were destroyed by the Apache. Benavides in 1630 stated that the Pueblo of Sevilleta had been refounded by him after the village had been burned by the nomadic Apache. The mission at Senecú called San Antonio de Senecú located near the present village of San Antonio was founded by Friar García de San Francisco y Zúñiga in 1629. This mission and Pueblo were destroyed as many others of the Rio Grande Piro and the Manzano Piro were in the period 1670 to 1675. On January 23, 1675, the Apache surprised the Pueblo of Senecú, killed the friar, Alonso Gil de Avila, and almost all of the natives. The Pueblo was never refounded. The Manzano Pueblos deserted in this period were: Chililí, Tajíque, Quaray, Tabira, Tenabó, and Abó. No record remains describing the surrender by these Pueblos of the eastern frontier posts. The churches that had been built and the few fragments of information dating from before the region became untenable, show that for more than fifty years missionaries had been at work and had built very remarkable missions at Abó, Tabira and Quaray.

Notwithstanding the enmity between these Pueblos and the Apache, on two occasions these two groups allied for the purpose of driving out the Spaniards. In 1665 the Piro of the Rio Grande Valley and the Apache killed five Spaniards. Six of the Indian leaders were hanged and a number of others connected with the revolt were sold into slavery. A second uprising was planned in 1670 by Estevan Clemente, a leader at one of the Manzano Pueblos, in connection with the Apache. The time set for the revolt was Thursday of Holy Week. The plot was discovered and Clemente was hanged.

The first attempt to found a mission in the El Paso district occurred about 1657. Friar García de San Francisco y Zúñiga founded the Manso Pueblo and left Friars Juan Cabal and Francisco Perez to instruct the natives. The unfriendly conduct of the natives made it necessary for Governor Mendizábal to send them military aid with whom the friars returned to the missions in New Mexico. On December 8, 1659, Friar García established the mission of Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe del Paso and on April 2, 1662, the corner-stone of the church was laid, which was completed in 1668. Ten families of Christian Indians were taken from the Pueblo of Senecú to assist the friars in teaching the natives of the El Paso district. Two other missions were established in the El Paso district before 1680: The mission of San Francisco de los Sumas was about fourteen leagues southeast of the Guadalupe mission and the mission called La Soledad de los Janos seventy leagues southwest of El Paso. According to the baptismal records of the mission Nuestra Señora del Guadalupe del Paso the following Indians were baptized between 1659 and 1680 (during which time seventeen friars served at the mission); 830 Manso, sixty-two Piro, seventeen Suma, ten Tano, five Apache, and four Jumano.

Between 1629 and 1664 a series of expeditions were conducted from New Mexico toward the east and northeast, in some cases to enlarge the area of mission influence through conversion of the Indians and in others for the purpose of finding wealth. A group of fifty Jumano Indians visited Isleta in 1629 and asked that a missionary be sent to them. Friar Juan de Salas and Diego López journeyed 112 leagues eastward from the Rio Grande on a missionary tour. In 1632 a similar excursion into the land of the Jumano was made by Friar Juan de Salas accompanied by Friar Diego Ortega, who remained in the vicinity of the Colorado River of Texas for a period of about six months. At this time Benavides proposed that a settlement be made on the coast of the Gulf of Mexico at a place which had been named Espiritú Santo, which was located indefinitely between Apalache Bay in Florida and Pánuco in Mexico. According to Benavides this port would not only provide a shorter route to the Quivira country, but also make possible closer connection between Cuba and New Mexico. The government of New Mexico in 1650 sent Captains Hernan Martín and Diego del Castillo eastward. They visited the Jumano on the Colorado River where they discovered some pearls which were later sent to the viceroy. After exploring the valley for about fifty leagues they returned to New Mexico. When the viceroy received the reports of this expedition he ordered the governor to send out a second exploring party to the Jumano country. This expedition consisted of thirty soldiers and 200 Indian allies under the command of Diego de Guadalajara. No important discoveries resulted from this expedition. About this time some of the Taos Indians moved to the plains of the

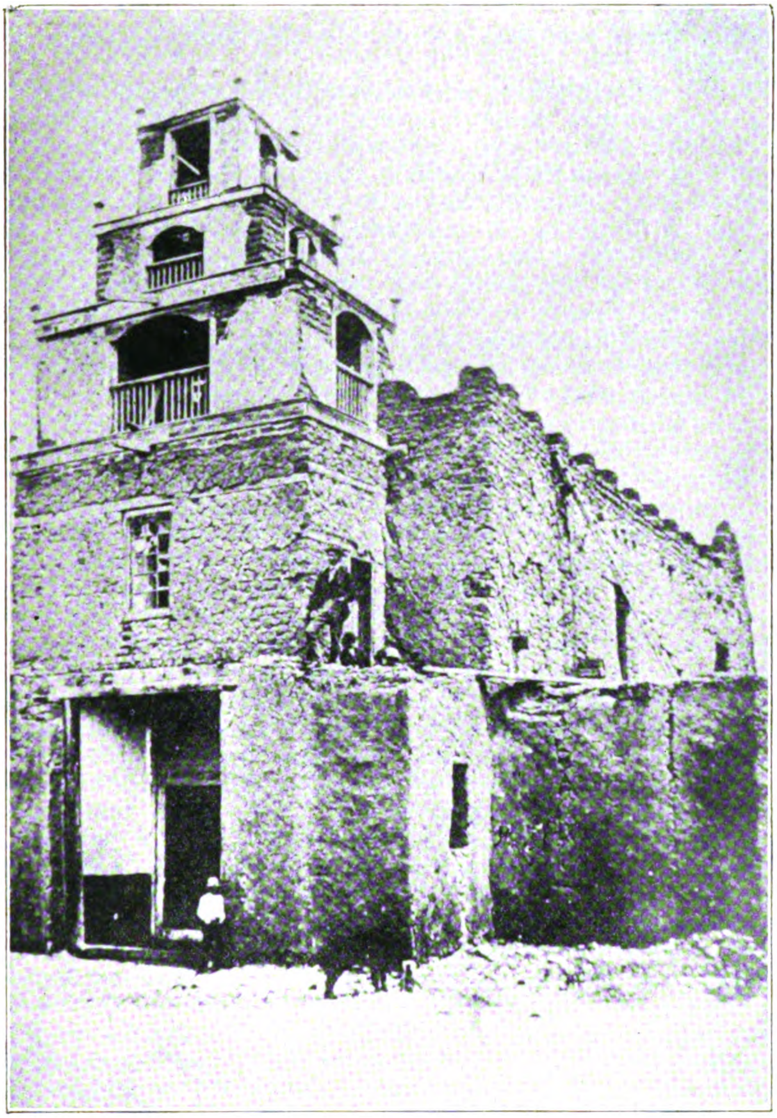


Photo by Museum Staff.

SAN MIGUEL CHURCH, SANTA FE

northwestern part of the present State of Kansas, where they built a Pueblo at a place called Cuartelejo. Juan de Archuleta, a few years later, was sent by the governor of New Mexico to persuade these people to return. In this undertaking he was successful.

The eastern expedition of Governor Diego de Penalosa Brizeño which according to the account written by Friar Nicolas de Freitas entitled, *Relacion del Descubrimiento del Pais y Ciudad de Quivira,* left Santa Fe in March of 1662. The authenticity of this document has been questioned and many writers have considered the journey fictitious. It is believed by some that the narrative was made up from the account of the expedition of Juan de Oñate to the Quivira country in 1601. The document was presented to the French government about 1673 by Penalosa, who claimed that it was a copy of a report made by him to the Spanish government. Penalosa had been discredited and was attempting to interest the French government in an expedition which was to be headed by himself for the purpose of attacking the frontier province of New Spain, namely, Nueva Vizcaya. The fact that Friar Alonso de Posadas, who was the custodio of the Franciscan missions in New Mexico at this time and who wrote an account of the expeditions eastward from New Mexico, does not mention the Penalosa explorations of 1662 has been used as evidence that the journey never took place. However, the false nature of this document is not an established fact. Bandelier writing in 1910 makes the following comment: "The authenticity of the document has been strongly doubted, though probably without just cause." The party consisted of eighty soldiers and 1,000 Indian allies. They traveled eastward 200 leagues until the early part of June, when they met the Escanjaques who were on their way to attack the Quivira Indians. With these Indians as allies, the Spaniards traveled northward until they came in sight of the great city of Quivira. Against the desires of Penalosa, the Escanjaques attacked the Quivira Indians who deserted their city. On June 11, 1662, Penalosa began his return journey to New Mexico. Shortly after he was attacked by the Escanjaques and 1,000 of these Indians were killed. The account of the City of Quivira and the surrounding country was grossly exaggerated.

Information concerning the Pueblos of New Mexico as given by Benavides in 1630 and Vetancur in 1680 as well as the names of the martyred friars of 1680 is here presented alphabetically:

Abó was the seat of the mission San Gregorio in the Salinas Valley. It had two *visitas,* Tenabó and Tabira. Fiften leagues east of these missions were the Christian Jumano, who were served by the friar of Quaray. The population was 800. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Acoma was twelve leagues west of Santa Ana. It had been brought under Spanish control in 1629. There was one friar at the mission. The inhabitants numbered 2,000. (Benavides, 1630.) The mission at Acoma was called San Estevan. It was located on a *peñol* one league in circumference and thirty *estados* high. The population was 1,500. The Pueblo was converted by Friar Juan Ramírez in 1629 and in 1680 was served by Friar Lucas Maldonado, who was killed in the revolt of that year. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Alameda, which was eight leagues north of Isleta, had a population of 300 and was the seat of the mission called Santa Ana. It was named for the poplar groves which shaded the road for four leagues. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Alamillo, seat of the mission of Santa Ana, was located three leagues north of Socorro and had a population of 300 Piro. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Chililí was three leagues from San Lázaro. It had a population of 500 Piro. It was converted by Friar Alonso Peinado, who established the mission Natividad. Chililí was the most northern of the Pueblos of the Salinas Valley. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Cochiti was three leagues from San Domingo and had a population of 300 Keres Indians. The friar escaped in 1680. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Galisteo, seat of the mission of Santa Cruz, was six leagues from Cochití and was the home of 800 Tano Indians. San Cristóbal was the *visita.* Friar Juan Bernal and Friar Domingo de Vera were killed at the Pueblo in 1680. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Hopi Pueblos in Spanish times called Moqui were thirty leagues west of Zuñi, had a population of 10,000 Indians and were being rapidly converted. (Benavides, 1630.) Aguatobi in the Moqui Province was twelve leagues from Zuñi, had a population of 800 and was the seat of the mission of San Bernardino. The Pueblos were converted by Friar Francisco de Porras. Friar Jose de Figueroa was killed in the Revolt of 1680. Oraibi, which was the farthest west of the Moqui towns, was the seat of the mission of San Francisco. It had a *visita* called Gualpi. The population of Oraibi was 14,000. The mission was destroyed in 1680 and Joseph de Espeleta and Friar Agustín de Santa María were killed. Xongopavi was seven leagues from Aguatobi and was the seat of the mission of San Bartolomé. It had a *visita* called Moxainabi. Joseph de Truxillo was killed in 1680 at Xongopavi which had a population of 500. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Isleta was the seat of the mission of San Antonio. The inhabitants numbered 2,000. A convent was built by Friar Juan de Salas. There were seven Spanish *ranchos* in the vicinity. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Jemez was the seat of the mission of San Diego. It had a population of 5,000 and was in charge of Friar Juan de Jesus, who was killed in 1680. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Nambé was the seat of the mission of San Francisco. It was three leagues east of Tesuque. Nambé had two *visitas,* Jacona and Cuyamungue. The population was 600. Friar Thomás de Torres was killed while serving the Pueblo in 1680. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Pecos was a Pueblo of the Jemez nation and language located four leagues north of the Tano Indians, had a mission and a population of 2,000 Indians. (Benavides, 1630.) Pecos was located on the Quivira frontier in a finely wooded country. The mission of Porciúncula had a fine church with six towers. Friar Fernando de Velasco was killed at the mission in 1680. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Picurís was a Pueblo of the Tiwa nation ten leagues up the river from San Ildefonso. They were the most savage Indians of the Province, the missionaries often being miraculously saved. There were 2,000 Indians who had been baptized at this Pueblo. (Benavides, 1630.) Picurís was the seat of the mission of San Lorenzo on a height six leagues from San Juan. It had a population of 3,000. Friar Matías Rendón who was serving the Pueblo at the time of the Revolt of 1680 was killed. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Piro was the southernmost nation of New Mexico and consisted of fifteen Pueblos of 6,000 Indians all baptized. It extended from Senecú to Sevilleta for fifteen leagues along both sides of the Rio Grande. There were three missions, Nuestra Señora del Socorro, San Antonio de Senecú and San Luís Obispo de Sevilleta. (Benavides, 1630.)

Puaray was the seat of the mission of San Bartolomé. It was located one league from Sandia and had a population of 200 Tiwa Indians. The name means *Gusanos*, worms. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Quaray was three leagues from Chililí and had a population of 600 Tiwa Indians, who spoke the Piro language. They were converted by Friar Perea who founded the mission of Concepción. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Queres, modern form Keres, was a nation four leagues above the Tiwa extending ten leagues from San Felipe and including Santa Ana on the west. There were seven Pueblos and three missions having a population of 4,000 Indians, all of whom had been baptized. (Benavides, 1630.)

Sandia was one league from Puaray with a population of 3,000 Tiwa Indians. Friar Estevan de Perea founded the mission of San Francisco at Sandia. (Vetancur, 1680.)

San Felipe was a Keres Pueblo with a population of 600. The mission was founded by Friar Cristóbal Quinoñes. (Vetancur. 1680.)

San Ildefonso was two leagues from Jacona and had a population of 800. Friar Luís de Morales and Antonio Sanches de Pro were killed at the Pueblo in 1680. (Vetancur, 1680.)

San Juan de los Caballeros was a *visita* of San Ildefonso. It had a population of 300 Indians. (Vetancur, 1680.)

San Marcos was five leagues northeast of Santo Domingo. It had two *visitas,* San Lázaro and Ciénega. Friar Manuel Tinoco, the missionary of the Pueblo, was killed in the Revolt of 1680. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Santa Clara was a *visita* of San Ildefonso. It has a population of 600 Indians. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Santa Fe was the villa of the Province. It was seven leagues west of Pecos and had a population of 250 Spaniards and 700 Indians. The mission church was nearly completed. (Benavides, 1630.) The Villa of Santa Fe was eight leagues from San Domingo. It was the residence of the governor, soldiers and four friars. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Santo Domingo was two leagues above San Felipe, had a population of 150 and one of the best convents in the Province. An auto-de-fe by order of the Inquisition was celebrated in 1661. Friars Francisco Antonio de Lorenzana, Juan de Talabán and Joseph Montes de Oca were killed at the Pueblo in 1680. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Senecú was the seat of the mission of San Antonio seventy leagues above Guadalupe del Paso. It was founded in 1630 by Friar Antonio Arteaga. (Vetancur; 1680.)

Sevilleta was Piro Pueblo five leagues from Alamillo on the opposite side of the river. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Socorro was the seat of the mission of Nuestra Señora del Socorro seven leagues above Senecú. The mission was founded by Friar García de Zúñiga. The Pueblo had a population of 600. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Tano was a nation ten leagues north of the Tompiro. There were five Pueblos extending over an area of ten leagues. All of the 4,000 Indians had been baptized. There was one mission in the district. (Benavides, 1630.)

Taos was a Pueblo of the same nation as the Picurís, but differing a little in language. It was located seven leagues north of Picurís and consisted of 1,500 Indians. There was a mission and two friars. These Indians were converted to the Christian idea of marriage by the death of a woman who was struck by lightning for opposing it, according to the belief of the Indians. (Benavides, 1630.) Taos was the seat of the mission of San Gerónimo situated in a fine valley five leagues from the Rio Grande. The population consisted of 2,000 Indians and a few Spaniards. Friar Pedro Miranda de Avila was killed at the Pueblo in 1631. Friars Juan de Pedrosa and Antonio de Mora were killed in the Revolt of 1680. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Tajíque was the seat of the mission of San Gregorio in the Salinas Valley. (Benavides, 1630.) It was two leagues from Quaray and had a population of 300. At the time of the Pueblo Revolt in 1680 the friar escaped. The mission at this time was called San Miguel. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Tesuque was located two leagues from Santa Fe and had a population of 200 Tewa Indians. The mission was called San Lorenzo. Friar Juan Bautista Pío was killed at the Pueblo in 1680. (Vetancur, 1680.)

Tewa was a nation west of Santa Fe extending ten or twelve leagues. There were eight Pueblos having a population of 6,000 Indians and three missions. These were the first natives to be baptized. (Benavides, 1630.)

Tiwa was a nation seven leagues above the Piro and consisted of fifteen or sixteen Pueblos, having a population of 7,000 Indians, all of whom had been baptized. There were two missions in this district, namely: San Antonio de Isleta and San Antonio de Sandia. (Benavides, 1630.)

Tompiro was a nation ten leagues east of the Keres, which extended fifteen leagues from Chililí. There were fourteen or fifteen Pueblos having a population of 10,000 Indians, all of whom had been converted. Six missions had been built in the district. (Benavides, 1630.)

Zuñi was a nation thirty leagues west of Acoma and consisted of eleven or twelve Pueblos extending over an area of nine or ten leagues. There were two missions and 10,000 converted Indians. (Benavides, 1630.) Alona was one of the Zuñi Pueblos, where the mission of Purisima Concepción was located. It had two *visitas* called Mazqui and Caquima. Together these had a population of 1,500. Friar Juan del Val was killed at this Pueblo in 1680. Aguico was a Zuñi Pueblo three leagues west of Pueblo having a population of 1,000 Indians. In 1632 Friar Francisco Letrado who had founded the mission of Concepción at this Pueblo was killed. The friar at the Pueblo in 1680 escaped. (Vetancur, 1680.)

CHAPTER XIII

THE PUEBLO REVOLT AND RECONQUEST, 1680-1707

The office of governor and captain-general of New Mexico was held during this period by the following:

Antonio Otermín	1679-1683
Domingo Jironza Pétriz Cruzate	1683-1685
Pedro Reneres de Posada	1686-1689
Domingo Jironza Pétriz Cruzate	1689-1691
Diego de Vargas Zapata	1691-1697
Pedro Rodríguez Cubero	1697-1703
Diego de Vargas, Marqués de la Nava de Brazinas	1703-1704
Juan Páez Hurtado, acting	1704-1705
Francisco Cuervo y Valdés	1705-1707

The Spanish frontier of northern New Spain was threatened in the early part of this period by the advance of the French into the Mississippi Valley from the Saint Lawrence Valley. The Spanish authorities in Mexico were informed that La Salle had left France, November, 1684, with a colony for the purpose of establishing a settlement at the mouth of the Mississippi River. The new province of Coahuila and the presidio of Monclova were established in 1687, Alonso de León being made governor. Annual expeditions were made by the governor between 1687 and 1690 across the Rio Grande from Monclova into Texas. In 1689 De León found La Salle's settlement near Matagorda Bay a short time after it had been destroyed by the Indians. Friar Massanet in 1690 with the assistance of the governor founded two missions on the Neches River in the eastern part of the present State of Texas. A new province called Texas was created north of the Rio Grande. Domingo de Terán, the governor of this new province, led an expedition into eastern Texas in 1691 to strengthen the missions in that area. Due to the hostilities of the Asinai Indians in eastern Texas the missions were abandoned in 1693. The temporary occupation of Texas came to an end on account of the difficulty of supporting the distant missions and the removal of immediate danger from French intrusions. Three missions and a presidio were established at San Juan Bautista between 1699 and 1703 below the present town of Eagle Pass on the Rio Grande.

The northwestern frontier of New Spain was thrust forward, resulting in the occupation of the present lands of Sonora, Lower California and Southern Arizona. Father Eusebio Francisco Kino began his work in Northern Sonora in March of 1687 when he established the mission, Dolores, in the Upper Sonora Valley. From this center the Jesuits established a group of missions extending into Southern Arizona and Lower California. The missions established in Altar Valley were destroyed by a revolt in 1695, but were immediately rebuilt. Father Kino and his chief co-worker, Father Salvatierra, in 1691 explored the valley of the Santa Cruz River. Three years later Father Kino reached the Gila by way of the Santa Cruz Valley. Kino's third expedition to the Gila Valley was made in 1697 following down the San Pedro River. Further explorations of the Gila Valley were carried on the next two years by Kino. He became convinced as a result of his explorations that Lower California was not an island, but a peninsula. In 1701 and in the following year Kino explored the region about the mouth of the Colorado River and in 1705 published a map representing California as a peninsula. Three missions were founded by the Jesuits in the Santa Cruz Valley within the present State of Arizona be-

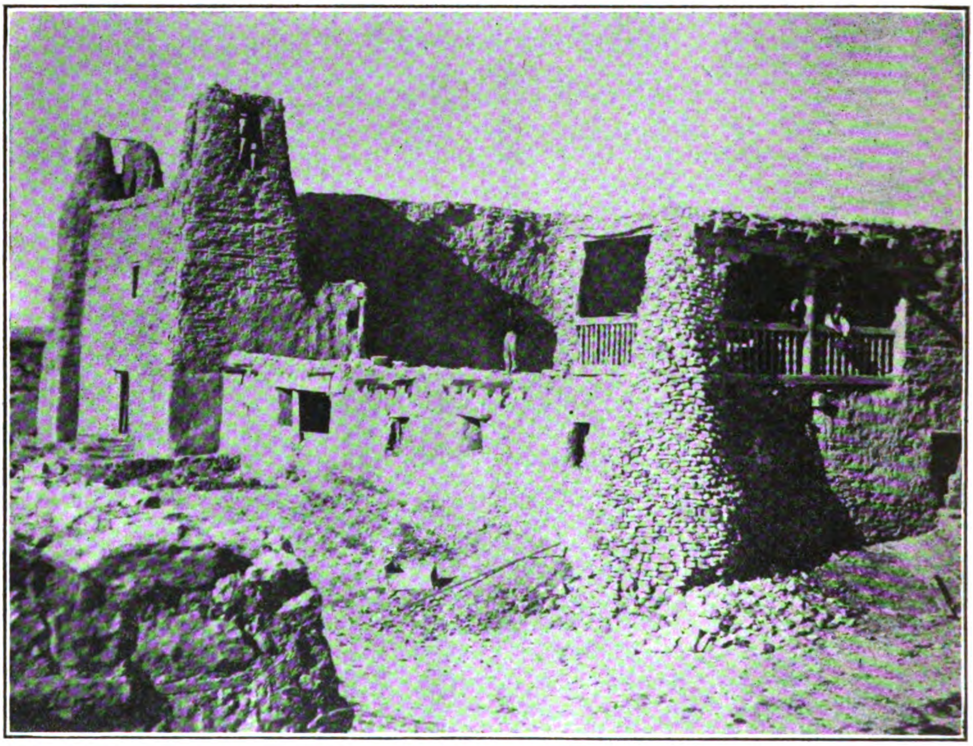


Photo by Museum Staff.

ACOMA MISSION

tween 1700 and 1703, which were San Xavier del Bac, Guebavi, and Tumcácori. The mission field of Lower California was first developed in 1697 by Juan Maria Salvatierra, whose headquarters were at Loreto opposite Guaymas. Five missions were established in the central part of the peninsula and explorations carried on which made known the whole peninsula.

During the long period of joint occupation of New Mexico by the comparatively small number of Spanish settlers and a relatively large number of Pueblo Indians, only on one occasion were the Indians successful in driving out the European population, namely: the Pueblo Revolt of 1680. The Indian attempts, both before and after the revolt, to drive out the Spanish settlers never seriously threatened the existence of the province. As a result of the revolt the Indians were relieved of Spanish interference until 1693 when the Reconquest was effected by DeVargas after a series of contests with the rebellious Indians who did not submit until they were driven from their fortified places. This epoch of conflicts is one of the most dramatic in the history of New Mexico.

The causes of the Pueblo Revolt of 1680 were in the main the differences between Indian culture and the Spanish European manner of life. The individualism of European social, political and religious organization stands in marked contrast even at the present day to the tribal, religious, social and political organization of the Pueblo Indians. Tribal religion is the very foundation of the small theocratic states which the Spaniards found in the valley of the Rio Grande. The Pueblo Indians were willing to accept the God of the Christians as an additional protecting power, but they could not give up their own beliefs concerning the spirits of the universe without completely destroying their organized tribal life, because every phase of their existence is affected by their conceptions of the relation of the tribe to the world.

Numerous attempts had been made during the seventeenth century to suppress the religious customs and the manners of living connected with them by the Spanish civil and religious officials without any noticeable effect. Governor Treviño in 1675 attempted to crush out the native religious practices of the Tewa Pueblos in the vicinity of Sante Fe. Forty-seven leaders were captured, charged with witchcraft and sorcery, three of their number were hanged and the others punished, including Popé, who later organized the only successful revolt conducted by the Pueblos of New Mexico against the foreign intruders. Seventy Tewa warriors visited the governor in Santa Fe and successfully demanded the release of those held in captivity. Popé's hatred of the Spaniards led him to plan a general revolt of all the Pueblos. His activity at San Juan Pueblo brought him into conflict with the *Maestro de campo*, Francisco Xavier, who by continual persecutions succeeded in driving Popé from the Pueblo.

The later plans for the revolt were formulated at the Pueblo of Taos where Popé was visited by three infernal spirits, Caudi, Tilini, and Tleume. These, he claimed, were the directing powers who instructed him in matters pertaining to the Revolt. Meetings were held with the chief religious officers of the northern Pueblos, to obtain the consent of all for the revolt. The plans were kept secret. The fear that Nicolas Bua, governor of the Pueblo of San Juan, would inform the Spaniards concerning the plans of the Indians caused Popé, who was his father-in-law, to kill him. It was provided that on the appointed day the Indians should seize the arms of the Spanish people and put to death the men, women and children, including the friars. The Villa of Santa Fe was to be cut off from the settlements in the Rio Abajo by the occupation of the region between Santa Fe and Bernalillo. Alliances were formed with the Apache and the Manso Indians, who were expected to kill those who escaped from the settlements. The original date for the uprising was set for August 13, 1680, but for some unknown reason was changed to August 11. Under orders from the spirits Popé sent a knotted cord to the various Pueblos, which indicated that the revolt was to take place on August 11. This was passed from Pueblo to Pueblo being carried by the swiftest runners and received by the chiefs. It was sent to all the villages except the Piro living in the Rio Grande Valley south of Isleta. These runners were enjoined with strictest secrecy and threatened with death if they revealed the mystery of the cord to the Spaniards.

Reports concerning the plans of the Indians were made known to the Spanish authorities in Santa Fe on August 9, two days before the date set for the revolt. Governor Otermín was informed by the chiefs of the Pueblos of San Marcos and La Ciénega that two Indians named Catua and Omtua from Tesuque had brought an order to them demanding that they take part in the revolt. Otermín immediately dispatched the *maestro de campo*, Francisco Gomez Robledo to arrest the messengers, who were brought before the governor as prisoners. They stated that they had been given the cord with two knots in it to carry to the Tano Pueblos, that some of the Tano chiefs were not in favor of the revolt, and that the revolting Pueblos threatened to destroy all the villages that refused to join the attack upon the Spaniards. On the same day Governor Otermín received reports from Friar Juan Bernal at Galisteo, Friar Fernando de Velasco at Pecos, and from the alcalde at Taos, informing him that a general revolt had been planned for August 13. These persons had not become aware of the change of the date to August 11. After the capture of the messengers from Tesuque, leaders of that Pueblo decided that the revolt must take place immediately. Runners were sent to the northern Pueblos announcing that the strike for freedom would be made the next morning, August

10. The Pueblos south of Santo Domingo did not receive the message until the afternoon of that day.

The contest that began on August 10 was one in which the contending parties were very unevenly matched providing the Pueblos could agree on a policy. The Spanish settlers who were widely scattered did not number more than 2,500 while the Indians of the Pueblos and the nomadic tribes in their vicinity included a population of ten times that number. The events of August 10 showed that the Pueblos were acting with greater unity than ever before. On the morning of August 10 the Taos Indians and their Apache allies fell upon the seventy settlers in the vicinity of the Pueblo and only two escaped. These were the *sargentos mayores,* Sebastian Herrera and Fernando de Chavez, who succeeded in reaching the neighborhood of the Villa of Santa Fe August 17, but finding it impossible to join the Spanish population there, they continued south and on August

Photo by Museum Staff.

A NEW MEXICO MISSION

20 joined the refugees under Alonso García who were retreating toward El Paso from Isleta. At the Pueblo of Picurís all the Spanish houses and farms were destroyed. After destroying the mission churches and the furnishings the Indians of Taos and Picurís moved southward, joined with the Tewa Indians and with them attacked the Villa of Santa Fe from the north.

The six Tewa Pueblos, Tesuque, Nambé, Pojoaque, San Juan, Santa Clara and San Ildefonso, and the Tewa Indian settlements of Jacona and Cuyamungue joined in the revolt, taking the leading part. On Friday evening, August 9, Cristóbal Herrera was killed at Tesuque. Friar Juan Pío and a soldier, Pedro Hidalgo, went to the Pueblo the following morning. They were attacked by the Indians; Friar Pío was killed and Hidalgo fled to Santa Fe, where he reported the uprising. All of the Spaniards at Nambé were killed, including Friar Thomás de Torres, Sebastian de Torres, his wife and several other persons. At Pojoaque Captain Francisco Ximines, his family and Joseph de Goitía were killed and Pertonilla de Salas and her eight children were carried into captivity. At San Juan Friar Juan de Morales was among the victims of the uprising. Bartolomeo Griego was killed at Santa Clara as well as two men of an escort of six led by Captain Francisco de Anaya, whose wife and children were made captives. Friar Luís de Morales and Friar Antonio Sanches de Pro were killed in the rebellion at San Ildefonso. In all, thirty Spaniards were known to have been killed in the Tewa Province. A number were carried into captivity and were never heard of again.

The Indians of the Tano Pueblos lying in the valley south of Santa Fe joined in the revolt although as has been seen several of their chiefs were opposed to it, and had reported the plans to Governor Otermín at Santa Fe. The Spaniards of the district gathered at Galisteo and Los Cerrillos. So far as is known all of those at Galisteo were put to death, including Friars Antonio Domingo de Bera, Fernando de Velasco and Manuel Tinoco, Capt. Joseph Nieto, Juan de Leiva, Nicolás de Leiva, their wives and children. The Spaniards in the vicinity of Los Cerrillos gathered at the house of the *sargento mayor*, Bernabe Marques, where they succeeded in defending themselves until August 13, when by means of aid sent them by Governor Otermín they were able to make their escape and join the main body of Spaniards at Santa Fe. At the Pueblo of Pecos Friar Juan de Pedrosa was killed. In this manner all the Spaniards were driven out of the region between Santo Domingo and Santa Fe.

The Queres Pueblos of Cochiti, Santo Domingo, San Felipe, Santa Ana and Sia and the Jemez Pueblo willingly took part in killing the Spaniards who were among them. The Spaniards at Cochití and San Felipe, according to the reports which gave no details, were killed. At Santo Domingo Friars Juan de Talabán, Antonio de Lorenzana and Joseph Montes de Oca lost their lives in the friary, their bodies being placed in a pile in the middle of the church. Other Spanish people who were victims of the furor of the Indians were: Sargento Mayor Andrés de Peralta, Esteban García, Nicolás López, Joseph Guadarrama, and his wife. Between Santo Domingo and San Felipe the bodies of six persons were found who had been slain by the Indians of these Pueblos on August 10. A number of *haciendas* were destroyed south of San Felipe and north of Bernalillo. Twelve persons were killed at the *estancia* of Sargento Mayor Cristobal de Anaya. On Sunday, August 11, the farm houses of Pedro de Cuellar and Captain Augustín de Carabajal were destroyed. Carabajal, his family and three other women were killed at the same time. The Indian messenger arrived at the Jemez Pueblo of San Diego at noon August 10, stating that all the settlers had been killed north of Santo Domingo. The revolt followed in which Friar Juan de Jesus met his death, while Luís de Granillo, the *alcalde mayor* of the jurisdiction, three soldiers and Friar Francisco Muñoz fled down the Jemez Valley, where they met a relief party headed by the lieutenant-governor of the province, Alonso S. García and four soldiers. This force arrived at Sia where they found Friar Nicolás Hurtado and three Spaniards defending themselves in the friary. These they rescued and the journey was continued to Isleta.

The revolt of the Tiwa Pueblos of Sandia, Puaray and Alameda began the afternoon of August 10. The lieutenant-governor reported that 120 people were killed in the Rio Abajo area, which included the settlements along the river between Bernalillo and Isleta. Seventeen farms were plundered in this region south of Sandia. Many of the inhabitants of this district escaped to Isleta where 1,500 people had taken refuge. Seven friars were among those who had escaped the Indian attack in the Rio Abajo country, namely: Nicolás Hurtado, Francisco Muñoz, Tomas de Tobalina, Juan de Zabaleta, Diego de Parraga, Antonio de Ciera, and Jose Bonillo.

The Acoma, Zuñi and Hopi Pueblos, west of the Rio Grande, played a part in the revolt to the extent of putting to death the resident missionaries at their villages. At Acoma, Friar Lucas Maldonado, at Zuñi, Friar Juan del Val, and at the Hopi towns, Friar Joseph de Figueroa, Friar Joseph de Espeleta, Friar Agustín de Santa María and Friar Joseph de Trujillo, lost their lives.

The commander in the Rio Abajo, Lieut-Gov. Alonso García, on the day after the settlers had been forced by the Indian revolt to concentrate in the vicinity of Isleta and Santa Fe, attempted to discover what had happened in the Rio Arroiba district. He sent messengers to Governor Otermín at Santa Fe, from his farm near Alameda, but received no reply. On the night of August 12, García and his six sons were forced by the Indians to abandon their home and retreat to Isleta. The affairs of the Spanish people congregated at Isleta were in a serious condition. They had come without supplies following the outbreak on August 10. The Isleta Indians, although they had not rebelled, were restless, due to the presence of the Spaniards and the threats made against them by the northern Indians. García called a council of the principal men at Isleta on August 14 in which it was decided to move southward until they should meet the supply train coming from Mexico City under Friar Ayeta, which they supposed was only a short distance down the river. The Isleta group of Spanish refugees reached Socorro on August 24, having traveled but twenty-five miles in ten days on account of lack of food and equipment. During this journey on August 20 there arrived in camp Sebastian de Herrera and Fernando de Chavez from Taos, who reported that, as they passed southward, they viewed the siege of Santa Fe from a distance. News was received on August 25 to the effect that the supply train under Friar Ayeta had reached El Paso. García called a council to which he proposed fortifying Socorro and with the supplies which they would get from El Paso return to Santa Fe. Almost all of those present in the council objected to dividing the force, either for the purpose of sending to El Paso to get aid or going to Santa Fe. Fray Cristóbal was reached on September 4, sixteen leagues south of Socorro. García received two messages on August 28, one from Friar Ayeta stating that supplies would be sent northward from El Paso immediately, and the other from Otermín announcing the escape of the people from Santa Fe and instructing the lieutenant-governor to send him supplies. Governor Otermín and the northern refugees joined García's party at Fray Cristóbal on September 13, 1680, thus uniting all of those who were left alive after the Indian attack.

The siege of Santa Fe was begun five days after the massacres had taken place in the various Pueblos. Otermín did not realize the seriousness of the situation until the return of the *maestro de campo* on August 12, whom he had sent out two days before to reconnoiter the Tewa Pueblos. This officer reported that the Tewa had killed thirty persons and that they had fortified themselves in the vicinity of Tesuque and Santa Clara. The settlers at Los Cerrillos under Bernabe Marqués and those at La Cañada assembled by the *alcalde mayor*, Luís Quintana, succeeded in reaching Santa Fe on August 13. Francisco Xavier, the secretary of government and war, had been ordered to bring together all the people of the Santa Fe jurisdiction in the "royal houses" on August 11. Two Indian messengers were sent to the *alcaldes mayores* of the Tano and Queres jurisdictions, who returned on the morning of August 14 with the report that 500 Indians of the Pueblos of San Marcos, San Lázaro, San Cristóbal, Pecos, La Ciénega and Galisteo were within one league of the villa of Santa Fe ready to begin the attack, but waiting for the arrival of the Picurís, Taos, and Tewa Indians.

The actual siege began on Thursday, August 15, with the sacking of the houses of Las Milpas de San Miguel south of the villa. Otermín sent out a command to negotiate with the leaders of the Indians, who consented to go to the palace to talk with the governor. This meeting accomplished nothing. The Indians had brought with them a red and a white cross and demanded that the governor accept one of them. They explained to him that if he chose the red cross it meant that the Indians would destroy the settlers in Santa Fe as they had destroyed those in the other Pueblos, but if he took the white cross the Spaniards would be allowed to withdraw from the country. Otermín refused to choose either of these alternatives, ordering the Indians to cease their hostilities and promising to pardon them for their offenses if they followed his instructions. As the Indian leaders returned to their army, bells were rung and the chapel of San Miguel was set on fire.

The governor sent out a force to strike the Indians before they gained more strength. In the contest Otermín found it necessary to send re-inforcements. The Indians having lost a number of their fighters withdrew under the cover of the night. At this critical time in the siege the Tano Indians received the help of the Tewa, Taos and Picurís, who attacked the Pueblo from the northern side, occupying a hill from which they were not dislodged. The Indians then destroyed the houses and churches of the villa and succeeded in cutting off the water supply which was brought from the Santa Fe River to the "royal houses." The Spaniards held out for two days and a night after the Indians had left them without water. Realizing that no offer of peace would be accepted, it was decided after holding a council to open a surprise attack upon the Indians at daybreak on August 20. As a result 300 Indians were killed, eighty head of cattle captured and eleven fire-arms recovered. Forty-seven persons, who were captured, were shot. At the time of this battle Otermín was informd that all of his countrymen had been killed, except those at Isleta.

Otermín and his officers on August 21, decided that they could no longer hold the villa of Santa Fe. All supplies were distributed among the people. These were estimated to be worth 8,000 pesos and consisted of clothing and arms. Not more than 100 of the 1,000 people were capable of bearing arms when the retreat was begun. They arrived at San Marcos on August 23, passed through the deserted Pueblos of Santo Domingo and San Felipe and reached the Pueblo of Sandia on August 26. Here Otermín was forced to send out a troop of fifty men against the Indians, who threatened to attack his party. Seven leagues south of Sandia at a place called Los Gomez an Indian was captured who informed Otermín of the retreat of García from Isleta. The Santa Fe party arrived at Isleta, September 3, finding that all the Indians had left the village. Three days later they reached

Alamillo, three and a half leagues above Socorro. Here Lieutenant-Governor García met Otermín and was arrested by the latter on the charge of deserting his jurisdiction. García presented his defense and was later acquitted. On the same day Pedro de Leiva arrived at Alamillo with supplies from El Paso. The northern group reached Socorro on September 7 and De Leiva was sent back to El Paso for additional supplies in order that the journey might be continued southward. On September 13, Otermín's party arrived at Fray Cristóbal, where they met the refugees from Isleta.

A council held on September 13 decided to continue the retreat to some place where the non-combatants might be left. They planned to obtain re-inforcements from El Paso with which they might bring about the reconquest of the Pueblos. Otermín having received a letter from Friar Ayeta left the camp with twelve soldiers and met the friar at La Salienta four leagues above the mission of Guadalupe del Paso. They sent supplies up the river and instructions to the officers at Fray Cristóbal ordering them to continue the retreat. While the main party was moving southward Ayeta and Otermín busied themselves in obtaining food supplies. Parties were sent out as far as Casas Grandes in order to get supplies of meat and corn. All of the people reached La Salienta on September 29, where a general inspection was ordered by the governor. This showed that all of the leaders as well as the other refugees were destitute, that there were 1,946 people of whom 155 were men capable of military service, that there were 317 Indians of the Pueblos of Sevilleta, Socorro, Alamillo and Senecú, and that there were 471 horses. In the council held October 2, the leaders agreed that the community was strong enough to establish a settlement, but that it would not be wise to attempt re-occupation of the Upper Rio Grande Valley without additional forces. The hard conditions existing among the refugees from New Mexico caused many of them to desert to the settlements in Nueva Vizcaya between Casas Grandes and Parral. On October 5 an order of the governor of Nueva Vizcaya was made public in the Pueblo Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe del Paso prohibiting the settlers of New Mexico from leaving the district about El Paso.

Three misions had been established by the New Mexico friars in the El Paso district prior to 1680. These were the mission of Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe del Paso, located at the ford of the Rio Grande where the river turns east, which was established in 1659; the mission of La Soledad de los Janos which was fourteen leagues from Casas Grandes and seventy leagues southwest of El Paso; and the mission Nuestro Padre San Francisco de los Sumas, twelve leagues east of El Paso. A small Spanish settlement had come into existence in the vicinity of the mission De Guadalupe, which was often referred to as the Pueblo of El Paso, although no organized civil settlement of that name had been established before 1680.

The camp at La Salienta was abandoned on October 9 and in its place three others were established about two leagues apart on the right bank of the Rio Grande in the neighborhood of the mission of Guadalupe. They were called, Real de San Lorenzo, Real de San Pedro de Alcantra, and Real del Santísmo Sacramento. This arrangement was completed by October 20, 1680. On that date Governor Otermín recommended to the viceroy that a presidio of fifty soldiers be established at El Paso and that 200 paid settlers be sent to strengthen the community in order to form a base for the reconquest of New Mexico. Upon the advice of the fiscal given January 7, 1681, and the approval of the Junta of the chief officials of Mexico City, the viceroy ordered on January 17 the creation of a presidio at El Paso to consist of fifty soldiers, who were to receive 315 pesos as annual wages. Otermín gathered the recruits for the new post between September 23 and 30, 1681. Father Ayeta arrived at El Paso from Mexico City the latter part of September, bringing with him supplies, additional settlers and orders from the viceroy for the reconquest of New Mexico.

The expedition which left El Paso on November 5, 1681, under Governor Otermín was believed by the leaders to be too weak to overcome the opposition of the New Mexico Indians. The army consisted of 130 soldiers, 112 Indian allies, 48 other persons, including several friars and 948 horses. They passed the Jornada del Muerto and reached the Pueblo of Senecú November 27, which was completely deserted. Only the walls of the mission remained standing. Otermín with thirty men went ahead to Socorro, where he found that the church and friary had been burned, probably by a band of Apache, who were discovered ambushed in the vicinity. The Pueblo was burned by Otermín in order to prevent the enemy from occupying it. The army arrived at Alamillo, December 2, where the remaining buildings of this Pueblo were destroyed by fire. Three days later the Sevilleta Pueblo was burned by order of Otermín. Some of the inhabitants of the four destroyed Piro Pueblos had accompanied the refugees from New Mexico to El Paso in September of 1680; some had joined the rebellious Indians; while others had moved northward and confederated with the peaceful Indians of Isleta. The Piro villages were never re-occupied.

As Otermín's army of re-occupation approached Isleta he issued strict orders relating to the recovery of property by the expedition. All branded stock was to be returned to the proper owners. The rights of those who remained in El Paso were to be protected. The church furnishings were to be handed over to Friar Ayeta and all military equipment to the governor. Any violation of these orders was to be punished by confiscation of property and death of the offender.

Otermín, with a command of seventy men, entered Isleta on the morning of December 6 without opposition from the 500 Indians, who were living there. He assembled the people in the plaza and reprimanded them for destroying the church. They replied that it had been burned by northern invaders after the retreat of the Spaniards. The next morning Friar Ayeta preached to the Indians; a search was made of all the houses for property of former Spanish settlers; and three natives were ordered to bring forth all masques, fetishes and other objects connected with their religion, which were placed in the middle of the plaza and burned.

Juan Domínguez de Mendoza, December 8, left Isleta with seventy men to reconnoiter the Pueblos of Alameda, Puaray, Sandia, San Felipe, Santo Domingo, and Cochití, the remainder of the expedition staying at Isleta until December 11, when Otermín advanced to Alameda. Mendoza arrived at Alameda on December 9 and learned from an old Indian woman, who spoke Spanish, that the people had deserted the village two days before fearing the Spaniards were returning to punish them for the uprising. She said that some of the natives were in the Sandia Mountains; some in the Jemez Mountains; and others in Cochití Canyon. The party went north to Puaray and Sandia on the following day, where they found that the churches had been destroyed and that the Indians had left for the mountains. Mendoza reached San Felipe on December 11, learning that the inhabitants had fled to Cochití Canyon. The friary and the roof of the church had been destroyed. Proceeding northward to Santo Domingo the next day they discovered the church and monastery in ruins. The new kivas, which the Indians had built after the retreat of the Spaniards the year before, were destroyed at Mendoza's order. On the morning of December 14, after having occupied the Pueblo of Cochití in canyon of the same name, 1,000 Indians were found assembled on the mesa about one league from the Pueblo. Catití and Tupatú, two of the leaders of the Pueblo revolt, agreed to make peace with Mendoza, to have the Indians renew their allegiance, and return to their Pueblos within two days. This treaty was not made in good faith, for as was learned a few days later the Indians were only waiting for the opportunity to kill all the Spaniards. Mendoza was apprized of the plot of the Indians on December 17, and immediately began his retreat making his first camp a league and a half below San Felipe. The next day they continued their journey southward to Sandia which they found burning and from there could see that Alameda and Puaray had been set on fire. These Pueblos were completely destroyed by order of Otermín, who had advanced from Isleta and established his camp near Alameda. Governor Otermín had reached this village on December 14 and on that day received a message from Isleta stating that the Indian enemies had surrounded the Pueblo and were threatening to kill all of the friendly natives living at Isleta.

The future course of the expedition was largely determined by the report made by Mendoza when he arrived at Otermín's camp near Alameda on December 18. The governor was disappointed with the manner in which Mendoza had conducted his excursion to Cichití because the latter had failed to burn the villages and defeat the Indians. The six Indian prisoners, who were brought into camp by Mendoza, testified that the native enemies were planning to exterminate the Spaniards providing the latter were at any time caught sufficiently off their guard. Otermín required the leaders of Mendoza's expedition to give answers to a series of questions relating to the journey and the Indians they had met. These officers stated that the Indians were opposed to the return of the Spaniards and to giving up their native religion. They advised that the attempt to reconquer the country be abandoned. Much discontent was created in the camp by the report that the governor had decided to send seventy men to punish the rebels in Cochití Canyon, because the strength of the expedition had been greatly weakened by the loss of horses and other equipment. On December 21 Otermín moved the camp to the farm of Luis de Carabajal three leagues below Alameda. A council of the officers was held on December 23 in which some favored an attempt to conquer the warring Indians, while others said they believed that an immediate retreat to El Paso was the only safe course. An Isleta Indian arrived at camp on the morning of December 24 with the information that Tupatú, with a band of Apache and northern Pueblo Indians, had appeared at Isleta and threatened to destroy the Pueblo unless the people joined in the war against the Spaniards. Otermín decided to retreat to the Pueblo in order to protect the friendly Indians there.

A review and an inventory of property made on December 30 revealed that only 236 horses were fit for military service and that seventy men could not be fully equipped for a campaign against the northern Indians. In a *Junta de Guerra* held December 31 the officers advised that the retreat be continued to El Paso, that the Isleta Indians accompany the expedition, and that the Pueblo of Isleta be burned. The retreat from Isleta was begun on January 2, 1682. They reached Alamillo on January 13, Socorro, January 15, passed the Jornada del Muerto between January 22 and 31, arrived at Doña Ana, February 4 and on February 11 came to Estero Largo, twenty-eight leagues north of El Paso. A few days later Otermín's worn-out army of re-occupation arrived at the settlement of San Lorenzo near El Paso. The expedition burned eight Pueblos, only two of which were later re-occupied, Isleta in 1709 and Sandia in 1748. A small amount of property belonging to the settlers and the church was recovered. The principal aims of the campaign had been to defeat the hostile natives and to re-occupy the Upper Rio Grande Valley, but neither was accomplished.

The Indian and Spanish settlements in the vicinity of El Paso were re-organized during 1682. The Piro Indians, who had retreated with the settlers in 1680, were established in two villages, Senecú del Sur, two leagues below El Paso, and Socorro del Sur, twelve leagues below El Paso. The Isleta Indians, who had retired from New Mexico with Otermín's expedition of 1681, founded Isleta del Sur, five leagues down the river from El Paso. The majority of the Spanish settlers made their new homes at San Lorenzo, twelve leagues down the valley from El Paso. It appears that the presidio authorized in 1681 was not immediately established, for after the appointment of Domingo Cruzate as governor, the viceroy, January 27, 1683, ordered the establishment of a presidio in the El Paso district to be known as Nuestra Señora del Pilar y el Glorioso San José. The government granted 2,000 pesos for the erection of the buildings for the garrison which arrived August 30, 1683. The presidio was located seven leagues below El Paso which placed it between the mission and the Spanish settlement.

The unfriendly disposition of the Apache and other Indians of northern Nueva Vizcaya, due no doubt in part to the successful revolt of the New Mexico Indians, accounted for the delay from 1682 until 1692 in putting into effect the plans for the reoccupation of New Mexico. On January 30, 1682, the Apache Indians raided the Real de San Lorenzo and carried off 200 horses. Apache attacks continued until Governor Cruzate, August, 1683, was forced to make a campaign against them in which twenty-two were captured and a number killed. A plot was discovered October 30, 1683, which had for its purpose the complete destruction of the Spanish settlements in the El Paso district. This undertaking failed, but a similar scheme was brought to the attention of the Spanish officers March 14, 1684. Eight Indians were condemned to death for their part in the conspiracy, but the sentences were suspended on petition of the settlers. Although the Indians of the El Paso district did not revolt, an Indian war broke out in northern Nueva Vizcaya in May of 1684, and it was not until the spring of 1686 that peace was completely restored. During this time the El Paso garrison was busy assisting in putting down the Indian uprising which included the Manso, Suma, Jano, Julime, Concho, Apache, Jocome, Chinara, Salinero and Dientes Negros tribes of Nueva Vizcaya. The missions established at La Junta near the mouth of the Conchos River by Father López in 1683, were destroyed during the Indian revolt of the following year.

The hardships and poverty of the settlers in the neighborhood of El Paso increased during the summer of 1684 due to the Indian revolt, a dry season, and the failure of the government to render assistance. In order to strengthen the settlement Governor Cruzate moved the Spanish colony from San Lorenzo to within a league of the presidio which before July 6, 1684, had been relocated near the mission of Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe del Paso. This change in location of dwellings added to the difficulty of the settlers in supporting themselves. The settlers sent a petition to the viceroy July 6, 1684, asking for the right to colonize on El Río del Sacramento, which they stated was within the jurisdiction of New Mexico as recently enlarged by him. The colonists also appealed to Cruzate in July and again in October for the right to abandon the El Paso settlement, but he replied that he could not leave the location without orders from the viceroy. An inspection made on November 11, 1684, of the El Paso district showed the population to be 1,030, a decrease of 916 people since the arrival of the New Mexico refugees in September, 1680.

The missions south of the Rio Grande established before 1680 by the New Mexico missionaries, were considered to be a part of the New Mexico jurisdiction by those in authority in that area, however, all the lands south of El Paso were claimed as a part of the province of Nueva Vizcaya. Control over the El Paso district was transferred to the governor of New Mexico by an order of the viceroy, January 17, 1681. The dividing line between that province and Nueva Vizcaya was fixed at the Rio del Sacramento in 1682. It appears that in the summer of 1685 all of the lands as far north as the Rio Grande at El Paso were restored to the jurisdiction of Nueva Vizcaya, for on August 12 Cruzate wrote that the recent ruling left him with no control over the El Paso district. The region between the Rio Grande and El Rio del Sacramento was again put under the authority of the governor of New Mexico by an order issued November 28. This order was received by Cruzate on May 1, 1686.

The desire of the settlers in 1684 to abandon the El Paso district was not gratified. Reports made by the settlers, friars and the governor were considered by the officials in Mexico City and on May 4 it was decided to continue the settlement at El Paso and send corn and meat to relieve the sufferings of that community. Friar Nicolás López went to Mexico City in order to get further aid. His first petition made June 7, 1685, was not favorably received, but he did not become discouraged and on September 5, he renewed his proposal for assisting the settlers at El Paso. He recommended that the settlement be moved to Isleta and the El Paso district abandoned, but no action was taken. The *cabildo* of Santa Fe which was located in the El Paso jurisdiction again appealed for the right to leave, November 3, but the *Junta General* in Mexico City decided that the El Paso settlements should be made permanent and allowed the governor 2,500 pesos to be used in relieving the wants of the inhabitants.

Domingo Cruzate's second term as governor covered the years 1689-1691. The New Mexico settlements between the first and second administrations of Cruzate were under the control of Governor Pedro Reneros Posada from 1686 to 1689. In the fall of 1688 Posada invaded New Mexico, had a battle with the Indians at the Pueblo of Sia, captured some horses and sheep and returned to El Paso arriving there on October 6. In September of the following year Cruzate made an *entrada* into New Mexico and attacked the Pueblo Indians at Sia. The number killed in this battle, according to Escalante, was 600. A second expedition was planned by Cruzate for the year 1690 in which he intended to re-occupy New Mexico, but this undertaking had to be postponed due to an Indian uprising in northern Nueva Vizcaya in the same year. According to documents found in the archives at Santa Fe, Governor Cruzate, between September 20 and 25, made grants of land to the following Pueblos: Acoma, Cochití, Jemez, Laguna, Pecos, Picurís, San Felipe, San Juan, Santa Ana, Santo Domingo, Sia and Zuñi. These documents were forged and are therefore spurious. From 1854 to 1890 they were considered true papers. Will M. Tipton proved that they were written after 1832. It was found that some of these documents contained sentences taken from a book, "Ojeada Sobre Nuevo Méjico," published in 1832 at Puebla, Mexico, by Antonio Barreiro. Further proof of the falsity of the documents was discovered after a comparison of the signatures of Cruzate on these grants with those on papers of known authenticity. One of the grants was made to the Pueblo of Laguna, which was not founded until ten years after the document was supposed to have been written, that is in 1699.

Diego de Vargas served as governor and captain-general of New Mexico from 1691 to 1697 and from 1703 to 1704, the latter year being the date of his death at Bernalillo. During his rule the New Mexico Indians were reconquered and the Spanish settlements refounded. He was occupied during 1691 in completing the pacification of the Suma and other Indians of the El Paso district. De Vargas replied to a petition of the *cabildo* of Santa Fe at El Paso on June 26, 1692. They had asked for the right to abandon the region and move southward, stating that for twelve years they had lived in the neighborhood of El Paso and that it was not possible to make a living in the region. They further said that they would move to San Martín Valley in October if their petition was granted. De Vargas refused to allow the petition informing the settlers that only the viceroy could grant a change in the location of the settlement.

The De Vargas expedition which left El Paso August 21, 1692, returned four months later after having received the submission of all of the New Mexico Pueblos. It was not until October of 1693 that the settlers left El Paso for the purpose of re-occupying the Pueblo region of the Upper Rio Grande Valley. The first De Vargas expedition consisted of about 200 soldiers and no settlers, the purpose being to reconquer the country rather than resettle it. The villa of Santa Fe was surrounded and the water supply cut off on September 13, 1692. The Tano of Galisteo had fortified themselves in the villa and first refused to submit, threatening to kill all the Spaniards who would not leave the country, but later agreed to surrender, De Vargas having offered them complete pardon.

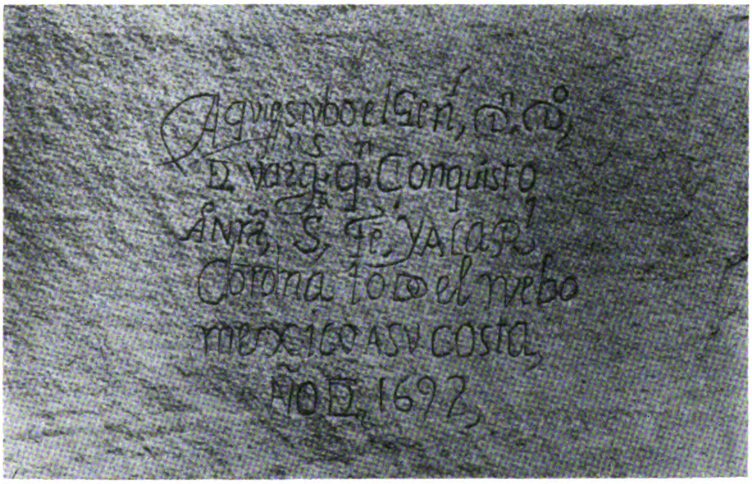
Between September 13 and 29, De Vargas visited the Pueblos of Cochití, Galisteo and Pecos. At Cochití the Indians refused to surrender at the time of De Vargas' arrival, but before the end of the day they consented to re-occupy their Pueblo and submit to Spanish authority. Passing eastward through the Galistea Basin he found the Pueblos of the Tano abandoned and burned. At Galisteo De Vargas met a command of fifty soldiers whom the viceroy had agreed to send him from Parral. He next visited the Pecos Pueblo where he found that the Indians a short time before had fled to the mountains. Messages were sent to them by Indian runners with offers of peace and pardon if they would renew their allegiance to the Spanish crown. After returning to Santa Fe De Vargas, on September 29, began a tour of the Pueblos north of the villa. All of the Tewa Pueblos submitted without offering resistance. In a report to the viceroy, October 15, 1692, De Vargas stated that all of the Pueblos within a radius of thirty-six leagues of Santa Fe had renewed their allegiance. Upon the receipt of this message the viceroy ordered a celebration on November 21. De Vargas also said that fifty families and 100 soldiers for a permanent garrison would be required for successful re-occupation of New Mexico.

De Vargas left Santa Fe for the Pecos Pueblo on October 16, 1692. He sent the supply train, ordnance and the people, who had been recovered in the province, to Santo Domingo, where they were to wait for the force and De Vargas before going on to El Paso. He entered the Pueblo of Pecos the following afternoon. The natives appeared to be pleased with his coming. Possession was taken in the name of the king and 248 Indians were baptized. The Indians elected new officers who De Vargas instructed in their duties. On the evening of the eighteenth he camped at the deserted and ruined Pueblo of Galisteo. De Vargas proceeded from there to San Marcos which was without people and partly destroyed, some of the church walls remained standing. The Pueblos of the Galisteo Basin were not re-occupied, with the exception of the Village of Galisteo.

On October 19, De Vargas at Santo Domingo received a friendly message from Sia and Cieneguilla near Cochití, to which he sent a reply telling them their people would be pardoned with the understanding that they would renew their allegiance and become good Christians. In Cochití Canyon, October 22, De Vargas found a gathering of Indians from San Marcos, San Felipe, and Cochití Pueblos, who said they had assembled there on account of fear of attacks from the Tewa, Tano and Taos Indians who were making war on the Keres. They seemed quite satisfied with the offers of peace. Leaving the Cochití district the commander moved his entire camp to the neighborhood of Bernalillo, where he left the supply train, ordnance, the people who had been recovered and a part of the soldiers, while he made a visit to the Pueblos of Santa Ana, Sia and Jemez in the Jemez Valley. A small command had been left near Bernalillo on September 10 before the army had moved northward to Santa Fe. At Sia the Pueblo had been destroyed by Cruzate in 1689, but the church remained standing. The Indians were friendly and agreed to the terms offered them. At the suggestion of the old chief, a new governor was appointed by De Vargas. When the small command arrived, October 25, in San Diego Canyon they found the Pueblo deserted and some 300 armed Indians assembled on the nearby mesa. After negotiations they accepted the peace agreement which was offered them.

De Vargas returned to the camp near Bernalillo, October 27, where he made arrangements for sending the supply train, fifty-seven Indians and others, and a part of the soldiers, to El Paso. The leader's report to the viceroy, written at this time, stated that seventeen Pueblos had submitted, that 1,560 Indians had been baptized and that only the Acoma, Zuñi and Hopi remained unconverted. On the following day, October 30, the army of invasion divided, the supply train departing for El Paso and De Vargas with eighty-nine soldiers and thirty Indian runners began the tour of the Pueblos lying west of the Rio Grande Valley. At Isleta they found only a ruined, deserted Pueblo, the walls of the nave of the church marking the site of the mission. The expedition arrived at the Rock of Acoma, November 3. Terms of peace were made by the Spaniards, but the Indians would not come down from the rock, nor would they allow DeVargas and his men to climb to the top of the butte. The Indians stated that natives had told them the Spaniards would come and put them to death if they submitted. Finally on the evening of November 4, De Vargas, the friars and fifteen soldiers were allowed to ascend to the Pueblo and the Indians agreed to renew their allegiance and Christian practices. The success at Acoma was considered a great victory.

From Acoma the party traveled by way of Inscription Rock, which they passed on November 8, to Zuñi. On the afternoon of November 9 a party of twelve Indians from the Pueblo, with an answer to the message offering peace which De Vargas had sent by Indian runners a few days before. On the night of November 10 sixteen head of stock were stolen from the camp of De Vargas by an Apache. The following morning the expedition marched up to the mesa, called Thunder Mountain, where the Indians had built a Pueblo after the Revolt in 1680, having deserted their Pueblos in the Zuñi Valley. In one of the rooms the Indians showed De Vargas the church furnishings and books that had been preserved from the mission at the deserted Pueblo. The Indians as in the other Pueblos accepted the restoration of Spanish rule and Christianity. At Zuñi, De Vargas left a part of his force and journeyed westward to the Hopi towns. They submitted on November 20. Reports were received that the Apache had attacked the Zuñi and for this reason De Vargas immediately returned to that Pueblo in order to assist the command that had been left at that settlement. A short time later the expedition left Zuñi for El Paso arriving there on December 20, 1692. On the return from Zuñi the party was attacked by the Apache who succeeded in capturing some of the horses and wounding one man. All of the Pueblos had been visited during the four-months' campaign and had agreed to recognize Spanish authority and restore Christian worship. Not only had the Indians submitted without a conflict, but not a member of the expedition lost his life during the *entrada*.



De Vargas' Record on El Morro, or Inscription Rock

After the return of De Vargas to El Paso in the latter part of December of 1692 from the successful reconquest of New Mexico, he began forming the plans for the resettlement of the region. The viceroy authorized the gathering of soldiers and colonists for that purpose by which De Vargas collected many of the former residents in New Mexico, who had moved from El Paso to various parts of Nueva Vizcaya. De Vargas accomplished this at his own expense, although an appropriation of 15,000 pesos had been allowed for gathering settlers for New Mexico. Settlers were also sent from Mexico City to strengthen the new settlement of Santa Fe. These consisted of sixty-seven families who left Mexico City September 9, 1693, each family being granted 300 pesos by the government of New Spain. However these did not arrive in time to become a part of the main army of occupation, but reached Santa Fe on June 23,

1694. Still another group of settlers from New Spain were sent to the frontier province of New Mexico under an order of the viceroy issued in March, 1694. De Vargas instructed Juan Páez Hurtado to go to New Spain to assist these forty-four families on their journey to New Mexico. They were able to make Santa Fe by May 9, 1695.

The force for the re-occupation of the Upper Rio Grande Valley was organized in September, 1693, and consisted of 800 persons of whom 100 were soldiers, seventeen friars; 900 head of cattle and 3,000 horses. Each family was allowed between ten and forty pesos to assist them on the journey. Luís Granillo was second in command, Hurtado was in charge of the settlers and Friar Salvador de San Antonio, leader of the Franciscans. On September 17 the order was given for the soldiers and settlers to begin the march. Thirty persons died from exposure and lack of food before the expedition arrived at Santa Fe. Supplies with which the journey was begun were exhausted and little was to be obtained in New Mexico due to the destruction of the Pueblos by the Apache and by the orders of Spanish commanders and on account of the havoc wrought by grasshoppers. In the vicinity of the present town of Bernalillo a messenger was sent to Sia, who returned with the information that the Indians were planning an attack upon the Spaniards and that they had invited the Apache to join in the effort to prevent the return of the settlers. At San Felipe, which at the time was located on the mesa above the present village, the people were friendly. An old Indian woman told De Vargas that the Tewa and Tano Indians had gathered north of Santa Fe and had attempted to get the other Pueblos to join them in making war upon the returning Spaniards. This failing the Tewa and Tano had returned to Santa Fe determined to resist the occupation of the villa by the invading force. On the mesa west of San Felipe many of the Indians of the Pueblos of Santa Ana, Sia and Cochití were found assembled and seemed friendly. The governors of the Pueblos of Tesuque, San Ildefonso and San Lázaro were met as well as Tupatú, one of the principal leaders in the revolt, who told De Vargas that many of the Indians believed a rumor that he had come with the intention of putting to death all of the leaders of the Revolt of 1680. De Vargas replied that he had pardoned all for that uprising, but that no punishment would be too severe for those who should plan a new revolt.

Possession of the Villa of Santa Fe was taken on December 16. The day before a group of leaders, headed by the Indian governor of Tesuque, had appeared at the camp of the army of occupation and professed friendship. The Tano and Tewa Indians were gathered in the plaza when de Vargas and his company entered the villa. With appropriate ceremonies possession was taken for the Spanish King. The commander then gave authority in religious matters to the Custodio of the Franciscan friars and control over the villa of Santa Fe to the *cabildo* of that place. The Indians were told that they had been pardoned, that the rumors concerning punishment were false, that the camp was established on the mountain slope outside the village, and that all required of them was the restoration of the Christian religion. The commander's first demand for 100 sacks of corn was met, but when he requested 200 additional ones, the Indians refused. Due to the inclement weather and complaints of the members of the expedition, De Vargas decided to occupy the public buildings of the villa. When this decision was made known to the Indians, they began fortifying the town. On December 29 the attack on the villa was made. During the battle a body of Tewa Indians came up to assist the natives in the village, but were driven off by the Spanish cavalry. Nine Indians were killed on the first day of the attack, which caused the besieged to become discouraged and surrender. The punishment meted out to the Indians was very severe. The officers seized 3,000 bushels of corn, beans and wheat, which were distributed among the colonists.

Shortly before the battle De Vargas received a report that the Pueblos of Sia, Santa Ana, San Felipe and Pecos were friendly, but that the others favored expulsion of the Spaniards. Probably as a result of the measures taken against Tano of Santa Fe, the Indians of the Pueblos of Tesuque, Nambe, Pojoaque, San Ildefonso, San Cristóbal and San Marcos assembled at the Black Mesa, near San Ildefonso, to make war on the Spaniards. When De Vargas appeared January 9, 1694, at the Black Mesa, these Indians agreed to come to Santa Fe and make peace, but this they failed to do, since their offer had been made for the purpose of gaining time, hoping to get aid from other Pueblos and the Apache before making an attack. In February a second journey was made to the Black Mesa, on which occasion the Indians refused to submit. On March 4 De Vargas for the third time went to the Black Mesa determined to force a decision. In the battle, which lasted five hours, fifteen Indians were killed and nine Spaniards wounded. The hostile Indians at the Black Mesa remained unconquered. The attack was renewed on March 11, when the forces of De Vargas again failed in their attempt to storm the mesa. The Indians in a counter-attack on March 12 came down from the mesa, but did not defeat the Spaniards. De Vargas continued the siege until March 19, when on account of the severe weather and lack of ammunition he returned to Santa Fe, taking with him about 100 horses and a supply of corn which he had captured.

Early in April the commander received information that the Cochití and others had assembled at Potrero Viejo, in Cochití Canyon, and were prepared to make an attack on the colonists. De Vargas left Santa Fe with seventy soldiers and twenty settlers on April 12 to prevent the Indians from carrying out their plans. Before proceeding to Cochití Canyon the party went southward to San Felipe, where they were joined by 100 Indian allies from the Pueblos of Santa Ana and Sia. Upon arriving at Cochití Canyon a council was held, in which Bartolomé Ojeda, the governor of the Pueblo of Sia, made known the trails leading up to the mesa where the Indians had gathered. On the morning of March 17, while attacks were being made on the north and east sides, a force of forty soldiers and 100 Indian allies gained the heights by a trail leading from the southwest. In the battle which followed twenty-one Indians were killed, four Spaniards were wounded, 342 women and children were captured. Seventy horses, 900 sheep and a supply of corn were taken from the Indians. A surprise attack was made by the natives on April 21, when they succeeded in recovering more than half of those who had been made captives. De Vargas burned the Pueblo on April 24 and destroyed all the supplies that he could not take with him, after which he returned to Santa Fe.

The Indians remained at war with the Spanish settlers during the summer of 1694. An expedition against the Indians north of Santa Fe was begun on June 30. On the first day of the journey a struggle occurred at Cuyamungue, in which eleven Tewa Indians were killed. Passing through the Pueblo of Picurís, which they found deserted, the party arrived at Taos on July 3. After these Indians had refused to make peace, the village was plundered and the corn supply taken. De Vargas then went northward from the Pueblo to the San Antonio River, where on July 12 his party was assaulted by the Ute Indians, who killed eight of them. Returning by way of Ojo Caliente, Black Mesa, Pojoaque and Tesuque, he arrived at Santa Fe on July 16, 1694.

On account of attacks upon the friendly Pueblos of Santa Ana and Sia, De Vargas was forced to make a campaign against the Jemez Indians. Although they had agreed in November, 1693, to remain at peace, yet they had stolen stock from the Pueblos of Santa Ana and Sia and threatened to destroy these villages. De Vargas arrived at the Pueblo of Sia on July 23, 1694, and with a force of 120 Spaniards and a number of Indian allies, he marched against the Jemez tribe, who were fortified on the mesa between San Diego and Guadalupe Canyons. Part of the command attacked by way of San Diego Canyon and the other through Guadalupe Canyon. In the battle that followed eighty-four Indians were killed, 361 prisoners were taken and stores of grain were removed. After the departure of the Spaniards for Santa Fe, August 11, the natives re-occupied the Pueblo of San Diego, where they continued to live until 1696, when the final abandonment took place.

The last of the series of campaigns against the Indians, which had begun with the attack upon Santa Fe in the latter part of December of 1693, took place in September of 1694. De Vargas left Santa Fe September 4, with all the available soldiers and 150 Indians, to force the occupants of the Black Mesa to submit. In the first charge the Spaniards were driven back, with eleven soldiers wounded. After several days of attacks and counterattacks, the natives made peace on September 8, De Vargas agreeing to grant them a general pardon and the Indians consenting to return to their villages.

After the submission of all the Pueblos during the last months of 1694, De Vargas returned to the Indians all the women and children who had been enslaved and distributed among the colonists during the contests of the year. This caused much dissatisfaction among the settlers. The friars took up their missionary activities at the Indian villages at this time, but not without danger from another uprising. The five missionaries killed in the revolt of June, 1696, were stationed at the following Pueblos: Francisco Corvera, San Ildefonso; Francisco de Jesus María Casañes, Jemez; Antonio Moreno, Nambé; José Arbisu, San Cristóbal; Antonio Carbonel, Taos. Others in the mission field were: Gerónimo Prieto, San Juan de los Caballeros; Antonio Obregon, San Cristóbal; Diego Zeinos, Pecos; Juan Alpuente, Sia; Juan Muñoz de Castro, Santa Fe; José Diez, Tesuque; José García Marín, Santa Clara; Miguel Tirsu, Santo Domingo; Antonio Arzevado, Nambé. The Custodio, Friar San Antonio, was succeeded in 1694 by Friar Francisco Vargas.

SANTA CRUZ MISSION

The second organized civil settlement in New Mexico was created by De Vargas in 1695 in the Santa Cruz Valley north of Santa Fe. The Tano Indians of the Pueblos of San Lázaro and San Cristóbal of the Galisteo Basin, following the Revolt of 1680, built villages in the lower valley of the Santa Cruz River on the lands which before the uprising had been occupied by Spanish people. The first step in the plans for the founding of the Villa Nueva de Santa Cruz was the order of De Vargas issued on March 20, 1695, instructing the Indians of the Pueblos of San Cristóbal and San Lázaro to move to the lands set aside for them in the Cañada de Chimayó. According to the governor's proclamation founding the villa of Santa Cruz, April 19, 1695, the natives of San Lázaro had vacated their Pueblo. The boundaries of the new settlement extended to the Pueblos of Nambé, Pojoaque, Jacona, San Ildefonso, Santa Clara and San Juan. The settlers who arrived from Mexico City June 23, 1694, and who had been temporarily housed in Santa Fe, left there on April 21, 1695, for their new homes on the frontier. It was the plan of De Vargas to found a second villa in the neighborhood of the Pueblo of San Cristóbal with settlers from Mexico City who reached Santa Fe May 9, 1695, but this project was not carried out. It was later claimed that the dispossessing of the Indians of their lands in the Santa Cruz Valley was the cause for the uprising which took place in June, 1696.

The last important Indian attempt to drive the Europeans out of New Mexico was in June, 1696. It did not include all of the Pueblos, as Pecos, San Felipe, Santa Ana and Sia remained faithful and assisted the Spaniards against the other Indians. Rumors of a new revolt were reported to the governor by Custodio Friar Francisco Vargas on March 7, 1696. He advised that guards be placed at all the missions. De Vargas did not take the report seriously, advising the missionaries to leave their stations and come to Santa Fe if they were afraid. Both the Indians and the settlers had suffered from the lack of food during the winter of 1695 and spring of 1696. Five friars, named above, and twenty-one other Spaniards were killed.

The first news of the uprising received by De Vargas at Santa Fe, on June 4, was a message from Friar Alonso Ximenes de Zisneros, who had fled from Cochití to San Felipe. The governor was informed that the Indians had united to drive the Spanish settlers out of the country. He immediately took measures for the protection of Santa Fe, which included ordering the cavalry at Santa Cruz to come to the capital and instructing the *alcalde* at Pecos to bring to the villa 100 friendly warriors from that Pueblo. On the same day word was received of the revolt of the Indians at San Cristóbal. The guard from Santa Cruz arrived at Santa Fe on June 5 and reported the death of two friars and four other persons at San Cristóbal; two friars and six other Spaniards at San Ildefonso; and four persons at Nambé. On the following day De Vargas sent an escort to Bernalillo, advising the commander, Fernando de Chaves, in case of danger to bring all the people of the district to Santa Fe.

De Vargas, with the 100 Pecos Indians, on June 7, began a tour of the Tewa Pueblos. He was informed by the governor of the Tesuque Pueblo that they had been threatened with destruction for their refusal to make war, but that they had had nothing to do with the revolt. Nambé was found deserted and the bodies of the four persons, who had been killed, were discovered near the church. After visiting San Ildefonso, June 8, where the church and friary had been burned and seven people killed, De Vargas returned to Santa Fe. Reports of the hostility of the Jemez continued to be sent by the friendly Pueblos of the Jemez Valley, who insisted that aid be sent them against their enemies.

After the trial and execution of several Indian leaders who had been captured, the governor prepared to make war on the Jemez Indians. This campaign was the first of a series that took place between June 29 and October 26, which resulted in the submission of all of the Pueblos. Re-inforcements were sent to Fernando Chaves. the commander of the Bernalillo post. and these soldiers, in conjunction with the guard at Sia, under Miguel de Lara, met the Jemez in battle on June 29, at the San Juan Pueblo of the Jemez, at the mouth of San Diego Canyon, and killed twenty Indians. The Zuñi and Acoma who had assisted returned to their homes, while the Jemez deserted their lands and fled to the Navaho country, never again to re-occupy their Pueblos above the junction of San Diego and Guadalupe Canyons.

The final phases of the rebellion included a journey to Acoma, a battle at Taos, and one with the Tewa north of Santa Fe. Leaving Santa Fe on August 8, the governor arrived at Acoma on August 15 and succeeded in making five prisoners, but failed to gain the top of the rock or win the submission of the Indians. The campaign against the Taos Pueblo was more successful. A conflict occurred in September in the canyon north of the village, after which these Indians submitted. After returning to Santa Fe, an attack on the warring Tewa natives, north of the capital, was made on October 26, when eighty-four women and children were captured. De Vargas, in a report to the Viceroy shortly after this conflict, stated that all of the Pueblos had made peace except Santa Clara, Pojoaque, Cuyamungue, Acoma, Zuñi and Hopi. By the middle of the following year, when De Vargas' term of office ended, all of the Pueblos except the Hopi towns had submitted. The population of these had been augmented by the migration of some of the Tano Indians from the Pueblos of San Cristóbal and San Lázaro, in the Santa Cruz Valley.

The six years of the governorship of Pedro Rodríguez Cubero, 1697-1703, were marked by a quarrel between the new governor and De Vargas. The latter expected to receive a reappointment, but instead his successor arrived in Santa Fe July 2, 1697. On October 20 the *Cabildo* of the villa filed charges with the governor against De Vargas. He was accused of taking supplies and money which the Viceroy had provided for the colonists; of having caused the revolt of 1694 by putting to death a number of those captured in the battle of Santa Fe in December, 1693; of causing the uprising of 1696 by taking the lands from the Pueblos of San Cristóbal and San Lázaro, in the Santa Cruz Valley, to found the villa of Santa Cruz; and of being responsible for the famine during the winter of 1695-1696. Antonio Valverde and Juan Paez Hurtado, officers under De Vargas, were accused of misappropriating funds allotted for colonization and the theft of a box containing 7,000 pesos. These officers, by order of Governor Cubero, were exiled, and De Vargas was fined 4,000 pesos, his property confiscated and held in prison until 1700. When the King received the reports of the Reconquest, he issued a royal cédula, June 15, 1699, conferring the title of marquis upon De Vargas for his services in New Mexico and reappointing him governor of the Province, beginning with the expiration of Cubero's term. The order for the unconditional release of De Vargas was received in Santa Fe, July, 1700. The *cabildo* of Santa Fe attempted to prevent De Vargas from resuming control of the government, but after an investigation ordered by the King, October 10, 1701, his appointment was confirmed.

Photo by Museum Staff.

MISSION AT LAGUNA

Governor Cubero's attempt to pacify the Indian Pueblos west of the Rio Grande, including Acoma, Zuñi and Hopi, was only partially successful. On an expedition to Zuñi, in 1699, he founded the Pueblo of Laguna on July 4. They were probably the Keres who had returned to New Mexico after having lived some years among the Hopi, where they had fled after the Pueblo Revolt of 1680. Cubero visited Acoma on July 6, the Indians agreeing to submit to Spanish authority. Later in the month Cubero received the submission of the Zuñi Indians and returned to Santa Fe. In October of the same year the Hopi proposed a treaty, the terms of which provided that the Spanish and Indians should each follow their own religion, a plan which the governor would not accept. In 1701 Cubero made a journey to the Hopi Pueblos, attacked them, captured a number of Indians, but failed in his attempt to make peace with them. Trouble occurred at Zuñi on March 4, 1703. The Indians killed three Spaniards, forced the missionary to leave the Pueblo and caused the governor to again abandon the mission station at Zuñi.

De Vargas stated concerning the administration of Cubero that he had allowed the soldiers stationed at Santa Fe to become scattered, some of them going to Bernalillo, others to Santa Cruz Valley, leaving the people of the capital without protection; that he had depopulated the frontier villa of Santa Cruz, which De Vargas had established in 1695; that he had brought about the abandonment of the Pueblo of Galisteo; and that he had annulled grants of lands made by De Vargas. By these acts, it was claimed, the affairs of the Province had fallen into a state of confusion. The *Cabildo* of Santa Fe in listing the ills of New Mexico during the governorship of Cubero stated that he spent his time in drinking, writing and attacking those who had worked to defend the Province from its enemies. When it became known at Santa Fe, in August, 1703, that De Vargas had started from Mexico City to resume control of the government, Cubero left the Province without waiting for the arrival of his successor on November 10, 1703, because he feared that De Vargas might imprison him.

De Vargas, the Marqués de la Nava de Brazinas, ruled New Mexico from November, 1703, until his death, April 4, 1704, which brought his second administration to a close five months after he had taken control. The governor presented a statement December 1, 1703, concerning his services during his first administration to the *Cabildo* and asked that body to furnish him a statement of justification for his former acts. On the following day the *Cabildo* complied, commending the services of De Vargas and condemning the actions of Cubero. Unsettled Indian relations characterized the short second governorship of De Vargas. The request of the friars for the re-establishment of the mission at Zuñi was refused because of the difficulty of protecting the missionary. The attacks on the Rio Grande settlements between Bernalillo and Isleta by a band of Indians called the Faraon Apache, who made their raids from the Sandia Mountains, caused the governor to make a campaign against them.

They had stolen stock from Capt. Fernando Chaves at Bernalillo and from Capt. Miguel García at Cieneguilla. The order for the gathering of the force at Bernalillo provided for the assembling of Indian allies from the Keres, Tewa, and Pecos Pueblos on March 29, 1703. Two days before De Vargas had left Santa Fe and proceeded by way of Cochití to Bernalillo. On March 30 all the preparations were completed and the expedition began its march to Carnuel, at the north end of the Sandia Mountains. They found traces of the Apache in the mountains and continued the search. On April 1 De Vargas and the main command reached the former Pueblo of Tajíque, the scouts continuing their pursuit of the Apache. Suddenly the governor became very ill, which forced the company to return immediately to Bernalillo, where he died of pneumonia, April 4, 1704. The death of the governor left control of the Province in the hands of Juan Páez Hurtado, the lieutenant-governor, who had been a prominent official since the beginning of the Reconquest in 1692. On October 11, 1704, the Viceroy informed the King that he had appointed Francisco Cuervo y Valdés as governor and captain-general of New Mexico. It was not until March 10, 1705, almost a year after the death of De Vargas, that Cuervo took control of the government.

The Indian affairs of the Province were not encouraging. The Apache raided the settlements and the Navaho made an attack upon the new Jemez Pueblo in 1705. The Hopi refused to accept missionaries. An appeal was made to the viceroy for assistance, but only a small supply of arms was received. Capt. Jaun Uribarri, in 1706, was sent against the Apache northeast of Santa Fe. At a place called Jicarilla, thirty-seven leagues northeast of Taos, he met some friendly Apache, who led him to the Indian settlement called Cuartelejo. In April of 1707 it was decided to withdraw the guards at frontier posts. It is not clear whether this provided for the removal of forces from Bernalillo and Santa Cruz, where there were thirty-seven and eighty-two soldiers, respectively, but it did mean the withdrawal of the guard that had been sent to Zuñi to protect that Pueblo from attacks by the Hopi and Apache.

Cuervo made some changes in the settlements in 1706. The Villa of Santa Cruz, which had been founded by De Vargas, abandoned by Cubero, was refounded with twenty-nine families. The Pueblo of Galisteo, also refounded and abandoned by Cubero, was re-established with eighteen Tano families who had been living at the Pueblo of Tesuque. The third foundation was the Villa of Albuquerque. Thirty families were settled on the present site of Old Albuquerque. The original name given by Cuervo was San Francisco de Alburquerque, in honor of Saint Francis; and the viceroy, the Duke of Albuquerque. When the viceroy received the reports concerning the new settlements made by Cuervo, he ordered the governor to change the name of the new villa to San Felipe de Alburquerque and to create no further towns without receiving permission from the government in Mexico City. This settlement was destined to a continuous existence from 1706 until the present and to become the largest center of population in New Mexico. Its foundation was based on the development of agriculture along the Rio Grande between Bernalillo and Isleta, in the region known as Rio Abajo, which had been the largest center of population even before the Pueblo Revolt of 1680.

CHAPTER XIV

SPANISH AND FRENCH RIVALRY, 1707-1767

The office of governor and captain-general of New Mexico was held by the following men during this epoch:

José Chacón Medina Salazar y Villaseñor Marqués de la Peñuela	1707-1712
Juan Ignacio Flores Mogollón	1712-1715
Félix Martínez	1715-1717
Juan Páez Hurtado	1717
Antonio Valverde y Cosío	1717-1722
Juan Domingo de Bustamante	1722-1731
Gervasio Cruzat y Góngora	1731-1736
Enrique de Olavide y Michelena	1736-1739
Gaspar Domingo de Mendoza	1739-1743
Joaquín Codallos y Rabal	1743-1749
Tomás Vélez Cachupín	1749-1754
Francisco Antonio Marín del Valle	1754-1760
Mateo Antonio de Mendoza	1760
Manuel Portillo Urrisola	1761-1762
Tomás Vélez Cachupín	1762-1767

The French intrusion into the western part of the Mississippi Valley was the cause for effort upon the part of Spain to extend her control along the northern frontier of New Spain from Texas to Lower California. On the Coahuila frontier, at San Juan Bautista, near present Eagle Pass, three missions and a presidio were founded between 1698 and 1703. The missionaries desired to return to eastern Texas, where missions had been established in 1690 and withdrawn in 1693. In 1715 it was decided to re-occupy the eastern Texas missions between the Trinity and Sabine rivers and in the next year plans were made for a settlement on the San Antonio River in Texas as a station between the Rio Grande and the eastern Texas missions. Martín de Alarcón in 1718 established a mission and presidio on the site of the present city of San Antonio.

When war broke out between France and Spain in 1719, Blondel, the French commander at Natchitoches led an invading company into eastern Texas in June and the Spaniards for the second time gave up the region, on this occasion retreating to San Antonio. The governor of Coahuila, the Marqués Aguayo, raised an army of 500 men, re-occupied the six eastern Texas missions between August and November, 1721, and founded the presidio of Los Adaes which became the capital of the new province of Texas. The Spanish missions and settlements in the San Antonio district suffered from a series of Apache attacks during the middle of the eighteenth century. In 1746 a new province was established along the gulf coast between the mouth of the San Antonio River and Tampico called Nuevo Santander. Governor José de Escandón established in 1749 twenty settlements some of which were north of the Rio Grande, such as Loredo and Dolores.

In Nueva Vizcaya there was some increase of settlement and development that tended to break down the isolation of New Mexico. Silver mines were discovered in the vicinity of Chihuahua in 1704 and prosperous mining camps sprung up at that place and at Santa Eulalia, each of which had a population of 5,000 in 1763. As high an estimate as $100,000,000 has been placed on the silver taken from these mines during the eighteenth century. Missions were founded as well as settlements in the Conchos Valley. The missions in the lower valley which had been established in 1684 and abandoned in 1686 were refounded in 1715 and a short time later there were six in the district, all of which were destroyed by an Indian uprising in 1725. It was not until the Conchos Valley had been more completely settled that the La Junta missions were again opened in 1753. The presidio of Belen was built in 1760 to protect the missions and settlements along the Rio Grande in the vicinity of the mouth of the Conchos River.

The Jesuit missions in the northwestern part of New Spain, that is in Sonora, Southern Arizona and Lower California, declined about 1711, at the time of the death of Father Kino, the man who had done so much to extend Spanish control in those parts. In 1732 the Jesuit missionaries were re-inforced and the northern missions which had been abandoned were re-occupied. Two years later the new province of Sinaloa was created from the northwestern part of Nueva Vizcaya. The discovery of silver in the Altar Valley temporarily increased the population of that locality. The Hopi district was transferred to the Jesuits of Sinaloa in 1741 and Fathers Keller and Sedelmayr made journeys north of the Gila River in 1743 and 1744, but found the Apache too hostile to remain. The Seri and Pima Indians revolted in 1750 and 1751 killing 100 colonists and several missionaries who were living along the present border between Arizona and Sonora. Presidios were built at this time at Altar near Caborca and at Tubac near San Xavier del Bac to protect the frontier. Plans were also approved by the viceroy for the occupation of the Gila and the Colorado Valley as a means of strengthening the frontier against the French, but the Indian wars in Sinaloa prevented this advance. The population of the Sonora Valley and Pimería Alta, which included Southern Arizona, in 1763 was about 3,000 people of Spanish and mixed blood.

In Lower California the Jesuits continued the work that they had begun in that area in the latter part of the seventeenth century. The missions suffered from Indian difficulties between 1734 and 1748 and in order to protect them a presidio was established in the southern part of the peninsula, called San José del Cabo. By the middle of the eighteenth century a settlement had grown up at La Paz based on mining, trade and pearl fisheries. The Jesuits at the same time extended their activities into the northern part of the peninsula. In 1746 Father Consag made an effort to find a land route to Sonora. He reached the head of the Gulf of California, but the overland route was not opened. Three missions were established north of Loreto between 1752 and 1767 which marked the farthest frontier occupied by the Jesuit missions.

The French exploration and colonization of the western part of the Mississippi Valley in the first half of the eighteenth century was the beginning of the conflicting interests of European states in western North America. The French advance to the Rocky Mountains was a direct threat at Spanish control and resulted in the northern movements along the frontier of New Spain from Texas to Lower California to prevent French encroachments.

The base of the French expansion was the occupation of lands along the Mississippi. The first French colony was established in January, 1699 at Biloxi a few months after the Spanish had occupied Pensacola. From Biloxi and Mobile as centers explorations were extended up the Alabama and Mississippi Rivers, and to Natchitoches on Red River which was founded in 1713 by Saint Denis who in that year made an expedition to the Rio Grande which had the effect of alarming the Spaniards. A second trading expedition was led by Saint Denis in 1717 across Texas to the Rio Grande where he met the Spaniards at San Juan Bautista. Although he was captured and sent to Mexico City some of his companions proceeded up the Rio Grande to El Paso where they sold their goods and later returned in peace to Louisiana.

Contemporary with the founding of New Orleans in 1718 and new settlements in the Illinois country between the mouth of the Missouri and the Ohio, expeditions were conducted up the rivers toward the Rocky Mountains as well as along the Gulf of Mexico. Benard de La Harpe in 1719 established a post on Red River above Natchitoches and advised the founding of a station at the mouth of the Canadian for trade with New Mexico, the Padouca and other Indian tribes. Du Tisné from the Illinois country in the same year traded among the Indians of the Osage Valley and passed over to the Arkansas River. He succeeded in making an alliance with the Pawnee Indians from whom he had bought Spanish horses.

During the first twenty years of the eighteenth century the Spanish authorities in New Mexico received alarming rumors concerning the activities of the French in the lands to the east of the province. In 1700 a report was received in Santa Fe stating that the French had destroyed a Jumano Indian village. Two years later Valverde was sent north from Santa Fe to the Arkansas, but failed to find any French traders among the western Indians. The Picurís Indians fled to the plains in 1704, settling at El Cuartelejo, but later returned to their Pueblo at the request of Governor Cuervo of New Mexico. The Comanche became a source of annoyance to the Spaniards beginning in 1704 when they first appeared at the Taos Pueblo. Captain Juan de Uribarri led an expedition against the Indians of the plains in 1706 during which the Jicarilla Apache, who lived thirty-six leagues north of Taos, led him to Cuartelejo which he called the province of San Luís. The Ute and Comanche attacked the Pueblo of Taos in 1716 and Captain Serna was ordered to punish these Indians. He defeated them in a battle thirty leagues north of Santa Fe at a place called Cerro de San Antonio.

The activities of the French in the western part of the Mississippi Valley during the second decade of the eighteenth century were known to the viceroy of New Spain. Orders received from the viceroy required the governor of New Mexico to make an expedition against the Pawnee Indians and the French. On June 2, 1719, a council of nine men was held in Santa Fe to discuss the advisability of establishing a post of twenty-five men at Cuartelejo. This council decided that it would be unwise to attempt to found a post at this distant point with so small a garrison. Governor Valverde left Santa Fe on September 15, 1719 with a command consisting of 105 Spaniards and thirty Indians to make a campaign against the Ute and the Comanche. He crossed the southeastern part of Colorado and entered the present state of Kansas. The Apache on the Arkansas informed him that they had been attacked by the Pawnee and the Jumano aided by the French. Valverde was told that there were Pawnee villages seventy leagues north of Cuartelejo and that Frenchmen were living among the Pawnee who resided on the Río de Jesus Maria, that is the Platte River.

When the viceroy received the report of Valverde's northern expedition he ordered that a new party be organized which was to proceed to the Pawnee villages. The command of the expedition was given to Pedro de Villazur who was in charge of the post at Santa Fe. The party consisted of fifty armed men, servants and a number of Indian auxiliaries who were armed with bows and arrows and a mule train of supplies and presents for the Apache who were to be persuaded to help the Spanish against the Pawnee and the French. The expedition under Villazur left Santa Fe on June 14, 1720 for the Pawnee country.

The Apache were visited and agreed to furnish guides and some warriors. The Pawnee villages were first sighted from a distance on August 15, 1720. They were located on the north side of the North Platte River. A Pawnee messenger was sent by Villazur to the Indian village, but he did not return. Several Pawnee came into the Spanish camp, but there was no interpreter who could understand them. Villazur fearing an attack retreated southward making his camp on the south side of the south fork of the Platte. The nightwatch was left to the Indian auxiliaries and the night passed without an attack. In the morning during the confusion of breaking camp a volley of musket fire and arrows came out of the tall grass which surrounded the Spanish camp. The Pawnee seeing the confusion that they had created came closer and completed the massacre after they had been repulsed three times by the guards who were the only ones armed. The Apache allies of the Spaniards and six soldiers were all that escaped.

The report of the destruction of the Villazur expedition was made by Felipe Tamariz who arrived in Santa Fe on September 6, 1720. He stated that forty Spaniards had been killed by the Pawnee near their villages. In addition to Tamariz those who survived were: Antonio de Armenta, Antonio Rael de Aguilar, Jr., Manuel Thenorio de Alba, Melchor Rodríguez and Santiago Giraville. The expedition resulted in the destruction of about half of the garrison of the post at Santa Fe. Pedro de Rivera, the inspector of the frontier garrisons of New Spain, was ordered by the viceroy to investigate the defeat of the Villazur expedition. Valverde was condemned for entrusting the command to Pedro de Villazur and was fined 200 pesos, one-fourth of which was to be applied for masses for souls of those who had perished in the massacre and the remainder was to be spent on the missions at Junta de los Rios in Chihuahua, which had been refounded in 1715 along the Rio Grande at the mouth of the Conchos Valley. In the French reports of the Villazur expedition it was stated that the Spaniards had been killed by the Missouri Indians. In 1727 Governor Bustamante reported that the French had settled at Cuartelejo, 160 leagues north from Santa Fe. He asked for troops for a proposed expedition against the French, but the government decided that action was unnecessary. The governor was ordered to obtain all the information he could from the Indians concerning the movements of the French.

Following the Villazur expedition La Harpe attempted to found a colony on the Texas coast in 1721. The party reached Galveston Bay but due to the unfriendly attitude of the Indians failed to occupy the country and the attempt to make a settlement on the gulf coast of Texas was abandoned. Later in the same year La Harpe was sent up the Arkansas to open trade with the Indians, to establish relations with New Mexico and to block the advance of the Spaniards eastward from New Mexico. He again recommended the placing of a post at the junction of the Canadian and the Arkansas River. The French also pushed into the interior from the Illinois country. In 1723 Bourgmont founded Fort Orleans and from there visited the Padouca in western Kansas with whom he had made arrangements for trade.

Not only the exclusive trade policy of Spain, but the Apache and Comanche who were enemies of the tribes east of them prevented the development of trade between the Illinois and Louisiana settlements of the French, and the provinces of Texas and New Mexico of the Spanish. The Comanche blocked the Arkansas route and the Apache the Red River route. As early as 1720 attempts were made to bring about peace between the Comanche and the Apache, and their Indian enemies to the east of them. After the close of the Fox Indian wars which had made the lower Missouri Valley a dangerous area, French traders began to extend their activities westward. In 1739 the Mallet Brothers with a party of traders followed up the Platte Valley to the Rocky Mountains and southward to Santa Fe where they remained for nine months. The party divided for the return journey, some of the men going down the Canadian and thence to New Orleans, while others returned northeastward to the Illinois country.

The successful trip of the Mallet Brothers encouraged the French to continue their attempts to open trade relations with New Mexico. In 1741 Governor Bienville sent Fabry de la Bruyère to open a route by way of the Canadian Valley. Peace was made between the Comanche and their eastern enemies in 1746 which made the route safe by way of the Arkansas. This alliance strengthened the Comanche and they increased their attacks upon the Pueblos of New Mexico. In 1746 they raided the Pueblos of Pecos and Galisteo and in the following year Governor Codallos organized a force of 500 soldiers and Indian allies. He overtook the Comanche in the vicinity of Abiquiu, killed 107, captured 206 and took about 1,000 horses. They were again repulsed at the Pueblo of Pecos in 1748 by Governor Codallos. A short time later 600 Comanche appeared at Taos, but claimed that they had taken no part in the war. After a council of the chief officials it was decided to allow the Comanche to trade at the Taos fair because of the value of the products that they brought and because they were thus brought under Christian influences. Governor Cachupín in 1751 made an attack upon the Comanche in which he killed 101 Indians. The eastern frontier, however, was not safe and garrisons were established at Pecos and Galisteo.

The first French trading party after the Commanche alliance arrived among the Jicarilla Apache early in 1748. On February 27 a party of seven Comanche reported at Taos that a company of thirty-three Frenchmen had traded muskets for mules at their settlement on the Jicarilla River. They further stated that all of the Frenchmen had left their country except two who planned to visit the Taos fair. The Lieutenant-Governor Bernardo de Bustamante y Tagle returned from the Taos fair on April 12, 1749 and brought with him three French traders whom the Comanche had guided to Taos. These men were Luis Febre, Pedro Satren and Joseph Miguel Riballo. In the declarations which were made by them under order of Governor Cachupín in Santa Fe they stated that they were bachelors, Catholics and that they had deserted from the Arkansas post, which they had left in the fall of 1748.

Governor Cachupín recommended June 9, 1749 that these Frenchmen be allowed to remain in Santa Fe and engage in their trades. The viceroy agreed to this arrangement on condition that they be closely watched and ordered that new statements be made by these men. In the spring of 1750 seven traders from Louisiana arrived at Santa Fe among whom was a Spaniard named Felipe de Sandoval who after having been captured by the English in the West Indies, had escaped to New Orleans and later had become a hunter at the Arkansas post. He learned of New Mexico from some of the members of the Mallet party and with six others ascended the Arkansas in the fall of 1749. Governor Cachupín made a second report to the viceroy concerning French intrusions on March 8, 1750, in which he condemned the policy of the former governor of New Mexico, Mendoza, in allowing the Mallet party to return to Louisiana. He stated that the newcomers were not soldiers, but hunters in the employ of fur traders. The chief danger was not from an increased number of French traders, but rather due to the knowledge of New Mexico gained by the French government through these trading parties. The governor believed that this information in case of war would be used by the French in making an attack upon the northern frontier of New Spain. Governor Cachupín therefore recommended that Frenchmen coming to New Mexico in the future should be sent to Nueva Vizcaya or Sonora to work as hunters and at their trades and that they should not be permitted to return to Louisiana. The viceroy on January 14, 1751, ordered that the intruders be sent to Sonora because that province was most remote from Louisiana. He also ordered that efforts be made to establish communications between Los Adaes and the New Mexico settlements and that the conquest of the warlike Apache between these two areas be undertaken. The purpose of this policy was to strengthen the frontier of Texas and New Mexico against the French and their Indian allies.

Two parties of French arrived in New Mexico by way of the Missouri River, one in 1751 and the other in 1752. All that is known concerning the first of these parties is that it consisted of four traders from New Orleans. The second group arrived at the Pecos Pueblo on August 6, 1752, and was made up of two Frenchmen, Jean Chapuis and Luis Feuilli. The governor of New Mexico ordered that these men be brought to Santa Fe where they made a statement concerning their journey. Chapuis had been issued a license by Benoit de St. Clair, commander in the Illinois country at Fort Chartres, to take a party of nine men to explore the route to New Mexico and to carry on trade in that country. The party left Fort Cavagnol on December 9, 1751, and departed from the Kansas for the Pawnee country in March of 1752. At this point eight of the party turned back due to fear of the Comanche, while the two leaders succeeded in passing through the Comanche country and in finally arriving at the Pecos Pueblo. These traders informed the governor that they planned to carry goods up the Missouri and by means of a caravan protected by fifty or sixty soldiers, bring the same overland to New Mexico. Upon being informed that their trade schemes were illegal they asked to be allowed to return to the Illinois country, but this was not granted them. Governor Cachupín ordered the goods brought into the country by these men, sold at auction. The merchandise was bought by Tomás Ortiz for 404 pesos, and the money was used to pay the cost of conducting the traders to Mexico City, the governor having determined to send them to that place in order that the viceroy might receive first hand information concerning the plans of the French. This action was based upon an order issued by the viceroy June 26, 1751, which commanded that French traders coming into New Mexico be refused the right of returning to the Louisiana or Illinois country.

When the French ceded all of Louisiana west of the Mississippi River to Spain at the end of the Seven Years' war in 1763, the French attempts to establish trade relations with New Mexico came to an end. In the latter part of the eighteenth century, efforts were made by the Spanish government to establish routes of communication from New Orleans by way of Natchitoches and San Antonio to New Mexico; and from St. Louis in the Illinois country, via the Arkansas River, to Santa Fe.

During the epoch from 1707 to 1767 the affairs of New Mexico were in the hands of an officer called governor and captain-general appointed by the King of Spain. The viceroy might make temporary appointments when necessary. Early in the eighteenth century the salary was fixed at 2,000 pesos by the King. The term of office was five years. The first governor in this period was José Chacón Medina Salazar y Villaseñor, Marqués de la Peñuela, who was in control from 1707 until 1712. During his administration many of the Indian missions, which had been destroyed during the Pueblo Revolt, were reconstructed. The governor himself played a part in this work by rebuilding the Chapel of San Miguel in Santa Fe in 1710, as is shown by the inscription on one of the vigas supporting the roof of the building. It was he who ordered the citizens of Santa Fe to celebrate each year on September 17, the reconquest of the villa by De Vargas. In recent years this custom has been revived in the form of the Santa Fe Fiesta.

Juan Ignacio Flores Mogollón became governor in 1712, but was removed from office by order of the King, October 5, 1715. He was accused of misuse of his office and tried in 1721. He was convicted, but neither the former governor nor any of his property could be found. It seems that Mogollón had been kept in prison for several years by his successor.

Félix Martínez was made temporary governor in 1715 by the viceroy. He had been captain under former administrations and in 1715 was appointed captain for life and life member of the town council of Santa Fe. Complaints were made against Martínez in 1716 which resulted in the viceroy ordering Captain Antonio Valverde of the El Paso presidio to proceed to Santa Fe and take charge. Valverde arrived on December 9, 1716 in Santa Fe, but Martínez refused to give up the office. He placed the government in the hands of Juan Páez Hurtado, January 20, 1717, and proceeded to Mexico City. However, a short time later Antonio Valverde was appointed temporary governor by the viceroy and administered the affairs of the province until 1722. It was during Valverde's term of office that the Villazur expedition was cut to pieces by the French and the Indians in what is now western Kansas. Antonio Bezerra Nieto held the *residencia* of Governors Félix Martínez and Antonio Valverde in April of 1723. He condemned the administration of Martínez and praised that of Valverde.

Governor Juan Domingo de Bustamante ruled the province from 1722 until 1731. He was the nephew and son-in-law of Antonio Valverde. In the spring of 1722 the inspector general, Captain Antonio Coban Busto, held a council of the chief officials of the province for the purpose of discovering the causes for the failure to settle the country between New Mexico and Chihuahua City. The reasons given for the absence of settlements in that area were: the small number of residents in New Mexico; the poverty of the people; and danger from Indians. In order to improve conditions in New Mexico this council proposed that a presidio consisting of fifty soldiers and a settlement of 200 people be established at Socorro and another presidio among the Hopi villages. The inspector was informed that the country was rich in minerals, that it had great agricultural and stock raising possibilities, and that the government could profitably assist in the development of the country. After controlling the province for nine years Governor Bustamante was charged with carrying on illegal trade, tried, found guilty and ordered to pay the costs.

Gervasio Cruzat y Góngora was governor from 1731 to 1736. He was succeeded by Enrique de Olavide y Michelena who was appointed as temporary governor by the viceroy May 17, 1736. He held office until 1739, when he was followed by Gaspár Domingo de Mendoza who controlled until 1743. Joaquin Codallos y Rabal was governor until 1749. On April 6 of that year Tomás Vélez Cachupín took charge of the province, which he controlled until succeeded by Francisco Antonio Marín del Valle who came into office in 1754. In 1760 Mateo Antonio de Mendoza was temporary governor for a few months after which time Manuel Portillo Urrisola was appointed temporary governor. Tomás Vélez Cachupín served a second term from 1762 to 1767. Opposition to his reappointment was strong on the part of the Franciscans, but they were not successful in preventing it.

An investigation took place in 1746 which attempted to determine the nature of the office of governor of New Mexico as well as that of minor officials. The evidence held that although the officers in New Mexico exercised political and judicial functions they were considered purely military and therefore not subject to the income tax, which was called the *Media Anata.* The witnesses stated that none of the governors had ever paid this tax, that the seven *alcaldes mayores* received no pay and very few fees, and that none of the inhabitants due to the poverty of the province paid any fees or tribute.

The chief provincial offices in addition to that of governor were: secretary, general, captains of the presidio, custodio of the missions, and commissioner of the Inquisition. In 1722 Miguel Enriquez was secretary; Juan Páez Hurtado and Antonio Bezerra Nieto, generals; Ignacio de Roybal, Diego Arias de Quiros, Francisco Montes y Vigil, captains of the military force; Friar Juan de Tagla, commissioner of the Inquisition and inspector of the missions: Friar Juan de la Cruz, custodio of the missions and ecclesiastical judge.

The chief local official in matters both civil and military was the *alcalde mayor,* who was the representative of the governor in the district under his control. In 1718 the *alcaldes mayores* were: Lieutenant Cristobal Torres, La Cañada jurisdiction; Captain Alonzo Garcia, Isleta; Captain Luis Garcia, Albuquerque, Bernalillo, Santa Ana, Sia, and Jemez; Captain Antonio Uribarri, Acoma, Laguna and Zuñi; Captain Alfonso Rael de Aguilar, Pecos and Galisteo; Captain Miguel Tenorio de Alba, Taos; and Captain Francisco Bueno de Bohorquez y Corcuera, Santa Fe.

The town council of the villa of Santa Fe, which was called the *cabildo,* played an important part in governing the town and in advising the governor on matters other than those relating to the local government during the seventeenth century and the early part of the eighteenth, but few references to the council are found after 1707. This may be explained as a part of the centralizing policy of the Bourbon kings of Spain who eliminated local governing bodies. The members of the *cabildo* were called *regidores.* A document dated December 12, 1703, gives the names of the members of the *cabildo* at that time. They were: Antonio de Montoya, Lorenzo de Madrid, Antonio de Aguilar y Sassi, Antonio Lucero de Godoy and Francisco Romero de Pedraza. The secretary of the *cabildo* at this time was Cristóbal de Góngora.

The political condition of the province March 27, 1750, was such that great injustice was done to the Indians, according to the statements made by Friar Carlos Delgado. He stated that the *alcaldes* were creatures of the governor, that they made all they could out of their offices and that this was divided with the governor. Groups of Indians numbering thirty or more were taken from the Pueblos by the *alcaldes* to make adobes, houses and to till the soil. Others were taken to drive livestock to Chihuahua. The only pay they received was a handful of tobacco or glass beads. Indians remaining at the Pueblos were required to weave 400 shawls and 400 sheets, in addition to tilling their own fields, which formed a part of the annual tribute of the Indians. Further the natives were forced to bring their grain to the Spanish settlements and sell it on credit eventually receiving in pay a few trinkets. Slight disobedience on the part of the Indians was punished by flogging and by placing them in stocks. In one instance an Indian was shot by a captain upon the unsupported charge of stealing three ears of corn. In another case three Indians who became footsore on a campaign were shot and their children sold into slavery for the profit of the commander of the expedition.

The population of New Mexico at the beginning of the eighteenth century was about 1,000 Spaniards who had returned from El Paso at the time of the reconquest in 1693. In 1750 there were 5,179 Spaniards and 13,542 Indians making a total of 18,721. Sixteen years later at the end of the period under discussion the Spanish population had doubled, there being 10,524. The Indian population had decreased to 9,580. According to the reports of 1750 the Spanish people in New Mexico were distributed as follows: Abiquiu, 100 persons; Albuquerque, 500; Bernalillo, 50; Chama, 85; Cochiti Pueblo, 25; El Paso, 1,100; Embudo, 40; Fuenclara, 250; Isleta Pueblo, 100; Nambé Pueblo, 100; Ojo Caliente, 280; Picurís Pueblo, 64; San Felipe Pueblo, 70; San Ildefonso Pueblo, 500; San Juan Pueblo, 346; Santa Ana Pueblo, 100; Santa Clara Pueblo, 89; Santa Cruz, 1,026; Santa Fe. 965; Sia Pueblo, 100; Soledad, 200; Taos Pueblo, 125; Tesuque Pueblo, 90. In 1760 the population of the principal places in New Mexico was given as follows: Albuquerque, 1,814; El Paso, 3,588; Santa Cruz, 1,515; and Santa Fe, 1,285.

Attempts were made to increase the settlements and missions, particularly on the frontiers and among the wild tribes during the first half of the eighteenth century, but without marked success. The Pueblo of Isleta was refounded in 1718 when some of the Tiwa Indians returned to the Rio Grande Valley from the

Hopi country, where they had lived since the Pueblo Revolt of 1680. The population of this Pueblo was given as 250 Indians in 1750. About 1734 a mission was established near Las Trampas for the Jicarilla Apache. This mission was about half way between Santa Fe and Taos. Its existence seems to have been short for in 1734 there were 130 Indians connected with the establishment while in 1748 there were only a few Indians living near the mission, and no later references are made to it. In 1744 Friars Delgado and Irigoyen visited the Navaho country by way of the Jemez Valley and found that the Indians were disposed to accept Christianity. A temporary settlement of Navaho Indians was established in 1746 at Cebolleta in the Laguna country and in 1749 Friar Juan Miguel Menchero founded two missions, the one at Cebolleta and the other at Encinal, and placed Friars Juan de Lezaun and Manuel Bermejo in charge. The missions were visited in the spring of 1750 by the lieutenant-governor of the province and the vice-custodio of the missions,

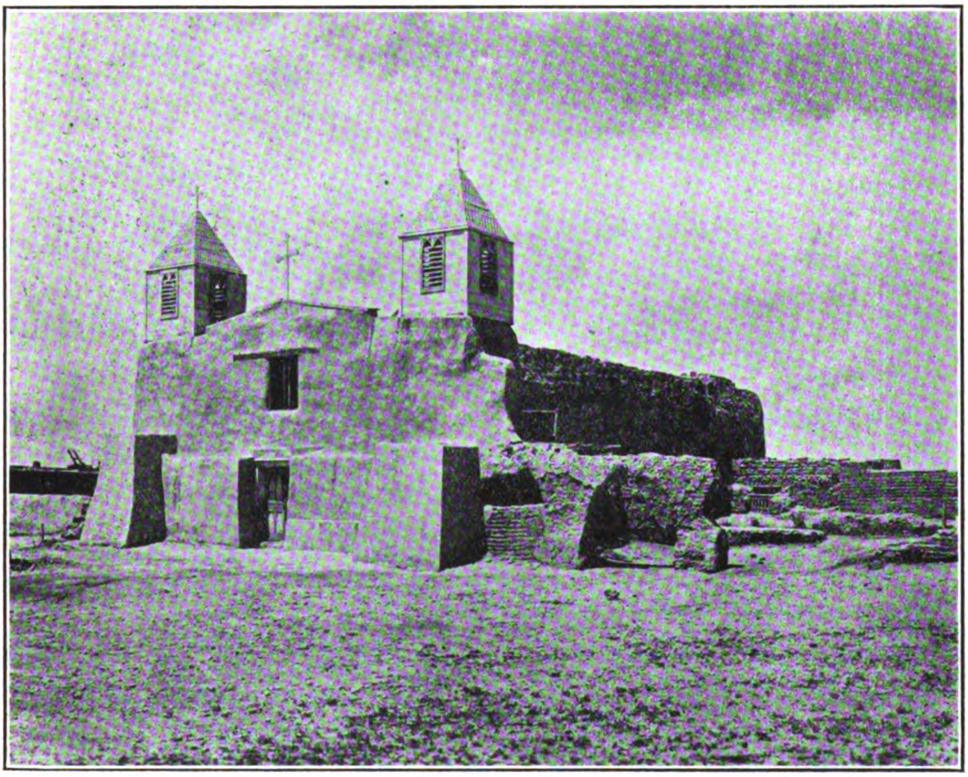


Photo by Museum Staff.

ISLETA PUEBLO

who reported that the Indians complained that they had not received the gifts that had been promised them and further, that they did not care for mission life. The 500 Navaho who had been gathered at these mission stations abandoned the sites in 1750.

The Pueblo of Sandia which had been burned by Otermín in 1681 was refounded by Friar Juan Miguel Menchero in 1748. Friars Delgado and Pino in 1742 brought 441 Tiwa Indians from the Hopi Pueblos where they had lived since the Pueblo Revolt of 1680. Friar Menchero in a letter to the governor stated that he had brought 350 souls from the Hopi Pueblos for the purpose of establishing them at Sandia and that the government had granted him the right to locate these Indians at that place. The governor instructed the lieutenant-governor to give possession of the lands at Sandia to Friar Menchero. The grant provided that the lands of the Pueblo should extend one league toward each of the four cardinal points from the church. On account of conflict of ownership west of the Rio Grande the grant was extended northward and southward to compensate for lands claimed on the west side. The population of the Pueblo in 1750 was placed at 400 Indians.

Several settlements were established for Indians who had been captured by the nomadic tribes and purchased by the Spaniards. They were called *genízaros.* There were probably also Spanish settlers at these places. Abiquiu was one of these settlements, founded prior to 1747. On August 12, 1747 the settlement was attacked by the Ute and Comanche Indians. In this battle 107 Indians were slain and 206 captured. In 1748 the settlement contained 20 families. A petition was sent to the governor asking permission to abandon the location. Later due to Ute and Navaho attacks the settlement was deserted, but re-occupied in 1754. Abiquiu in 1765 had a population of 166. The settlement at Tomé was founded in 1739 by thirty Spanish families. In the following year forty Indian families bought from the Apache and Comanche were released from servitude and made up the *genízaro* element of settlement. The population in 1766 was said to be 350. Belen was also originally established as a genízaro settlement. A few of these redeemed captives were living at that place in 1766.

A settlement for Frenchmen called Canadá was established in 1739 a short distance south of Isleta. The name was changed to Limpia Concepción. In 1750 this settlement was called Fuenclara and had a population of 250.

Campaigns against the nomadic Indians became more numerous in the first half of the eighteenth century due to the movement southward of the Ute and Comanche. Governor Mogollón in 1714 forced the Ute, who had made a number of attacks upon the Pueblo of Taos, to make peace and to restore stolen property. This did not result in peace for in the summer of 1716 the Ute and Comanche renewed their attacks upon Taos. Captain Serna was sent against them and they were defeated at Cerro de San Antonio, thirty leagues north of Santa Fe. The captives taken were sold by Governor Martínez in Nueva Vizcaya. The Ute made an attack upon the Pueblo of Jemez in 1724. In the same year the Comanche attack the Jicarilla Apache, who were friendly to the Spaniards, and forced them to give up half of their women and children. Captain Juan Páez Hurtado was sent against the Comanche with a command of 100 men, but failed to conquer them. The Ute and Comanche attacked Abiquiu on August 12, 1747. The campaign which followed resulted in the death of 107 Indians and the capture of 206 natives and 1,000 horses. The Comanche raided the Pueblo of Galisteo on November 3, 1751, but were repulsed by the Indians of the Pueblo and the ten Spanish soldiers stationed there. Governor Cachupín organized an expedition consisting of fifty-four soldiers, thirty settlers and eighty Indians and pursued the Comanche to the

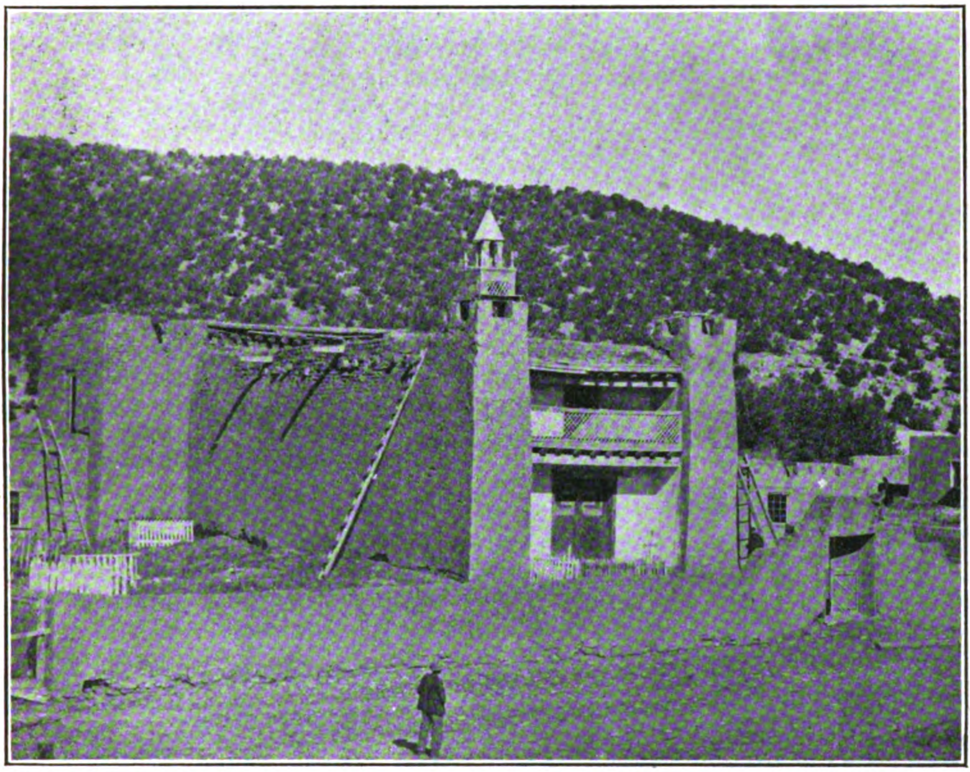


Photo by Museum Staff.

CHURCH AT LAS TRAMPAS

Arkansas River. According to Cachupín's report 101 Indians were killed in a battle which took place on November 11. Forty-four Indians were made prisoners, although all but four were returned to the Indians—the four being held as hostages, the Comanche having agreed to release all captives taken on previous raids upon the Pueblos. The Spanish settlements near Taos were raided by the Comanche in 1759 when these Indians carried off fifty women and killed all the men. In the raid the Comanche lost forty-nine Indians. In 1760 they were defeated in an engagement near Taos in which, according to the report of Governor Urrisola, 400 Comanche were killed. On May 21, 1763, the viceroy wrote to Governor Cachupín concerning a threatened invasion of New Mexico by the Comanche thus showing continued hostility on the part of this tribe.

The Navaho Indians early in the eighteenth century made several assaults upon the Jemez Pueblo. These Indians had deserted their former Pueblos above the junction of San Diego and Guadalupe Canyons after the conflict with the Spanish authorities in 1696. When they returned to the Jemez Valley they built the Pueblo on the east bank of the Jemez River about five miles below the junction. The Navaho attacked this new Pueblo in 1709 which was followed by a campaign against them led by the Spanish governor, the Marqués de la Peñuela. The Navaho were defeated and forced to agree to keep the peace, but failed to do so. As a result of attacks by the Navaho upon the Rio Grande Pueblos Captain Serna was sent into the Navaho country at the head of a force consisting of 400 soldiers, settlers and Indian allies. Serna defeated the Navaho in October of 1713. The Jemez Pueblo was again raided by the Navaho in 1714. Captain Madrid was able to force the Navaho out of the Jemez Valley. During the remainder of the period the Navaho gave the Spaniards less trouble than any of the nomadic Indians.

It may be said that this period marks the beginning of a long series of Apache wars. The Faraon Apache against whom De Vargas conducted his last campaign in 1704, were warned in 1713 to cease their depredations upon the settlements along the Rio Grande between Bernalillo and Isleta. Captain Juan Páez Hurtado led an expedition consisting of 250 men against the Apache in western Texas, but failed to weaken them or prevent their future attacks upon the New Mexico settlements. In the summer of 1747 a campaign against the Apache Indians of the Upper Gila Valley was organized, the force consisting of soldiers from five presidios, namely: Guevavi, near the present Nogales, Arizona; Fronteras, in northeastern Sonora; Janos, in northern Chihuahua; El Paso; and Santa Fe. The governor of New Mexico was ordered to send thirty soldiers, forty settlers and seventy Indian allies to join the command of Captain Don Alonso Victores de Celis in the Mimbres Valley in September. The Santa Fe troops did not arrive at Isleta until December 24, 1747, due to the attack of the Ute upon Abiquiu. This campaign, the details of which have not been made known, was the beginning of combined action upon the part of the frontier presidios against the Apache.

Efforts were made by the Spanish authorities to bring the Hopi villages to recognize Spanish sovereignty and to accept Christianity, but without success. Zuñi chiefs were sent by the governor of New Mexico in 1707 to persuade the Hopi Pueblos to submit, but instead these Indians made an attack upon the Pueblo of Zuñi. Friar Irazabal gave permission to two Zuñi Indians in December, 1713, to visit the Hopi Pueblos. They reported that the leaders of the Pueblo desired an alliance with Zuñi, but refused to establish friendly relations with the Spaniards. A Hopi Indian visited Santa Fe in March, 1715, and stated that the Hopi desired to make peace. He was sent back with the message informing the Hopi that the Spanish government was willing to treat with them. In May, 1715, an Oraibe

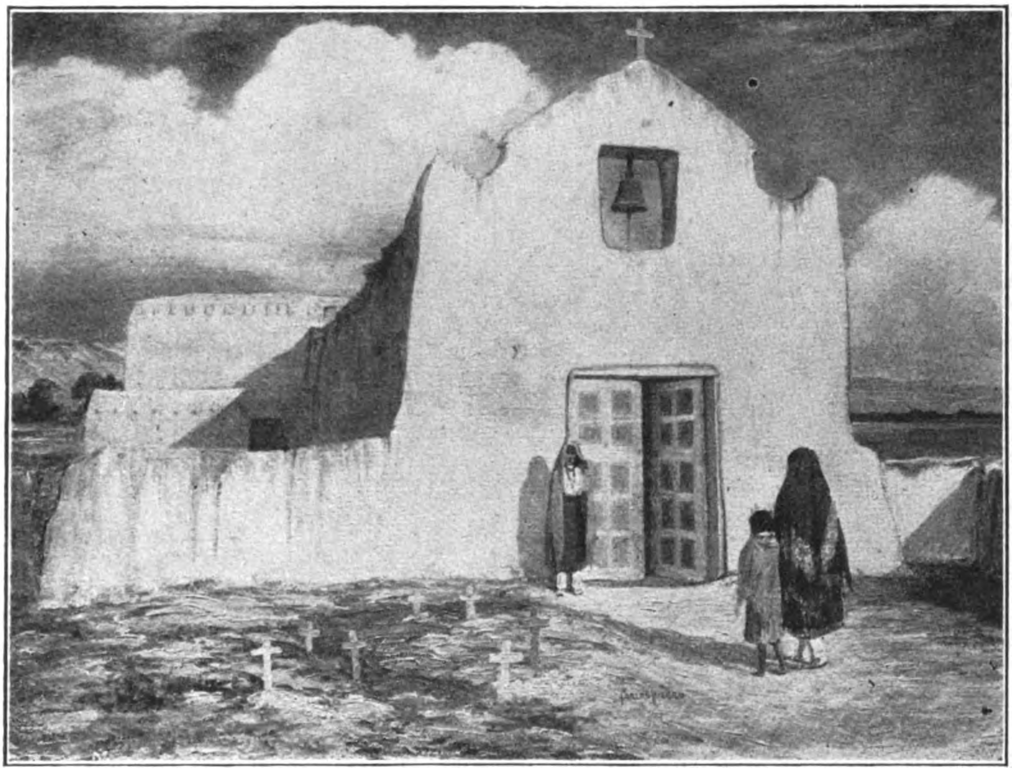


Photo by Museum Staff.

SANTA CLARA MISSION. PAINTING BY CARLOS VIERRA chief arrived in Santa Fe with the information that all of the Hopi Pueblos had agreed upon establishing friendly relations with the Spaniards and upon accepting Christianity. Eight Hopi Indians came to Santa Fe in July of the same year to announce that their tribes would submit after the harvest. However, when the governor of New Mexico sent messengers to the Hopi Indians it was discovered that they were as unfriendly as in the past and that the reports above mentioned were falsifications made by the Indian traders for the purpose of protecting themselves on trading expeditions.

Governor Martínez in August of 1716 organized a campaign to bring about the submission of the Hopi Pueblos. The company consisted of sixty-eight men, including settlers from Albuquerque and Santa Cruz and the custodio of the Franciscan missions, Friar Camargo. At Inscription Rock, between Acoma and Zuñi, the following was cut into the side of the cliff: "Don Féliz Martínez, governor and captain-general of this kingdom, passed by here the twenty-sixth of August, 1716, to the reduction and conquest of Moqui and in his company the Reverend Father Friar Antonio Camargo, custodio and ecclesiastical judge." Commissioners who were sent from Zuñi to the Hopi, reported that some of the towns were willing to submit, but that others refused. During the month of September two battles occurred in which the Indians were defeated, but not brought under Spanish control. After destroying the corn fields of the Hopi the expedition returned to Santa Fe where it arrived on October 8, 1716.

The Jesuits, who in the early part of the eighteenth century explored and established missions in the district south of the Gila River, which is now southern Arizona, desired to have the Hopi villages annexed to their jurisdiction. The Franciscans of New Mexico opposed this change. An attempt was made in 1716 by the bishop of Durango to put the Hopi under the Jesuits, but this plan failed. However, in 1719 the King issued an order which provided that the Jesuits should be allowed to establish missions among the Hopi. The decline of the Jesuit missions, between 1720 and 1740, explains the failure of the Jesuits to take advantage of their new field. In 1741 the King renewed the order of 1719 and Fathers Keller and Sedelmayr made expeditions north of the Gila toward the Hopi country. Friars Delgado and Pino succeeded in 1743 in bringing back to the Rio Grande Valley 441 Tiwa Indians who had lived among the Hopi since the Pueblo Revolt of 1680. The recovery of these apostates convinced the king that the Hopi could best be brought under control from New Mexico, an on November 23, 1745, he issued an order placing the Hopi villages under the Franciscans, who failed in this period to convert the Hopi Indians.

The Suma Indians, who had been brought under control between 1680 and 1690, revolted in 1713. Captain Antonio Valverde was sent to put down the uprising. He succeeded in defeating the Suma and in establishing a settlement for these Indians at Realito de San Lorenzo near El Paso.

The control and treatment of the natives and trade relations with them made up a phase of the history of the period. A provincial council which included the chief religious, civil and military authorities, was held July 6, 1714 for the purpose of considering the following questions: first, shall Christian Indians be allowed to carry fire-arms? and second, shall converted Indians be allowed to paint themselves? The military officials opposed allowing the Indians to carry fire-arms while the Friars favored it. The governor ordered that arms be taken from all natives except those who were trustworthy. On the second question no decision was made although the Indians decided the matter by continuing the practice. Governor Bustamante, April 3, 1723, issued an order regulating trade with Non-Christian Indians. Settlers and Pueblo Indians were forbidden to go out of the Rio Grande Valley to trade, while commerce was legalized with the plains Indians and Indians north of New Mexico at Taos and Pecos. Personal service although prohibited upon the part of the Indians was often required of them by officials. In 1725 the viceroy issued an order forbidding all personal services by the Indians without pay except those connected with the

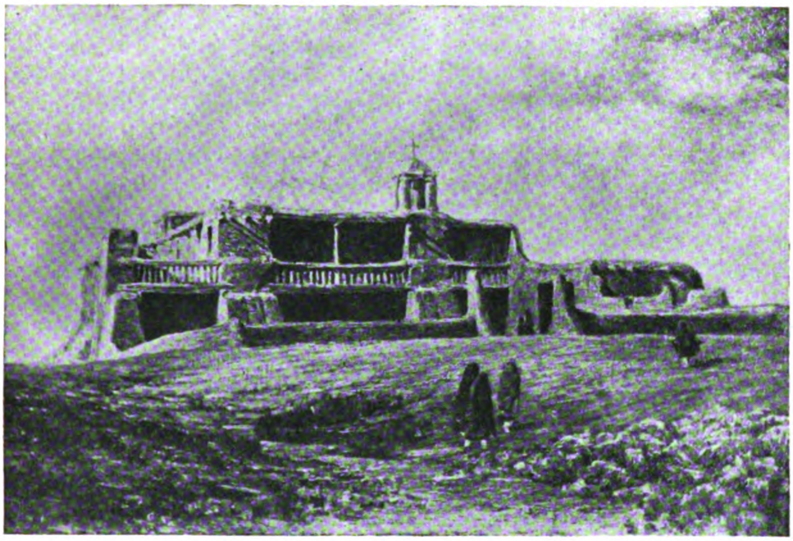


Photo by Museum Staff.

SANTA ANA MISSION. PAINTING BY CARLOS VIERRA missions. Indians captured in campaigns against the nomadic tribes were legally enslaved. That Indian slaves were held is shown by the following: On March 5, 1744 nine Indians, men and women, belonging to the Navaho, Ute, Comanche and Apache tribes, property of Captain Sebastian Martín, were baptized at San Juan Pueblo.

Governor Marín del Valle issued instructions in 1754 concerning trade relations with the Indians. The order provided that under no circumstances were settlers to sell mares, mules, asses, or offensive weapons to the Indians. He also fixed the prices for trade with Indians. For one horse the price was from twelve to fifteen skins. For an iron knife, one skin. For 250 pounds of cotton cloth, two pack horses. These prices show that the government regulated trade and that it was carried on without money, barter being the basis for exchange of goods.

A controversy concerning the rights of control in the New Mexico district by the regular and secular clergy arose in 1725. The Bishop of Durango claimed New Mexico as a part of his bishopric, the right to appoint a vicar and control ecclesiastical matters. The friars refused to recognize the authority of the secular clergy. Bishop Crespo exercised his authority at El Paso in 1725. At Santa Fe in 1730 the bishop was not hindered in his activities, but at some of the missions he was not allowed to act by the friars, who had been instructed by the custodio of the missions, Friar Andrés Varo, to refuse to recognize the rights of the bishop. The ecclesiastical judge, Santiago Roybal, appointed for the province by the bishop, was hindered by the friars in carrying out his instructions. Bishop Crespo in 1731 began legal proceedings against the Franciscans for the recognition of the rights of the secular clergy in New Mexico. In addition to the charge of refusal to recognize the jurisdiction of the bishop, other accusations were made against the Franciscans. Evidence was taken by the bishop in Santa Fe in June of 1731 and by the custodio of the Franciscans in July of that year. The secular clergy charged that the friars did not properly administer the sacraments; that they did not learn the native languages; that the Indians did not confess because it could only be performed through an interpreter; that although the government provided for thirty friars there were only twenty-four in the province; that the Franciscans were to blame for the failure to reduce the Hopi villages; that the tithes were not properly collected; that some of the friars neglected their duties; and that some did not conduct themselves properly. The case dragged on for some years, the final decision not being known. In 1733 a temporary decision was made in the courts of New Spain to the effect that the bishop might exercise jurisdiction in New Mexico. The case was appealed to the courts in Spain in 1736, the friars claiming that the testimony against them was by persons whose evil practices they had condemned. The last document relating to the case was dated 1738 and, at that time no final decision had been reached. It seems that the Franciscans made no further opposition to the demands of the bishop. Bishop Elizaecochea visited the province in 1737 as is shown by the inscription on El Morro which reads as follows: "On September 28, 1737, the most illustrious Señor Doctor Don Martin de Elizaecochea, Bishop of Durango, reached here, and on the 29th went on to Zuñi." It was more than twenty years before a bishop again visited New Mexico. Bishop Pedro Tamaron, between April and July of 1760, confirmed 11,271 persons in the province and 2,973 in the El Paso district.

CHAPTER XV

SPANISH CONTROL OF THE TRANS-MISSISSIPPI WEST, 1767-1805

In 1776 the title of chief executive for New Mexico was changed from that of governor and captain-general to governor, the military power being given to the commandant general of the *Provincias Internas*, which included the northern provinces of New Spain. The office of governor of New Mexico was held during this period by the following:

Pedro Fermín de Mendinueta	1767-1778
Juan Bautista de Anza	1778-1789
Fernando de la Concha	1789-1794
Fernando Chacón	1794-1805

The acquisition of Louisiana and the colonization of Upper California by Spain created a new situation in Western North America. The rivalry between France and Spain for control of the area had come to an end, but the growing colonial power of the British Empire became a menace to Spanish possessions both along the Mississippi and the Pacific Coast. Spain had lost Florida in the settlement at the end of the Seven Years' war and had witnessed the occupation of Havana and Manila by the British naval forces during that struggle. The Spanish King, Charles III, realized that the contest for colonial empire would involve his nation in a struggle with England, which took place in 1779 in the form of the war of American Independence, in which Spain, allied with France against the English, recovered Florida. However, the efforts of Charles the Third, although temporarily successful in strengthening the colonial power of Spain, failed to save the empire, and it was rapidly lost during the reigns of Charles the Fourth and Ferdinand the Seventh.

In Louisiana Spain took over an area that had been colonized by the French during the first half of the eighteenth century, there being introduced about 5,000 Europeans and 5,000 Africans. It was not until 1769 that Spain succeeded in establishing her authority in the French settlements along the Mississippi River. She was then faced with the problem of governing the area and needed a system by which the Indians could be controlled and the English kept out. In order to accomplish the latter, French and Indians living east of the Mississippi were encouraged to move west of that river and additional posts were built along the west bank. The French Indian policy was adopted for the control of the Indian tribes, and French licensed traders worked to make the Indian tribes, who had been friends of the French and enemies of the Spanish, loyal subjects of the latter. The mission system which had been so consistently a part of Spanish Indian policy was not extended to Louisiana. This was due in part to the warlike nomadic type of Indians, but principally to the existence of a system of control already developed by the French. The Indian policy developed by Spain in Louisiana had the following aims: to hold the allegiance of the tribes from the Gulf of Mexico to Canada; to keep these tribes hostile to the English; to refuse supplies to unfriendly Indians; to exclude unlicensed traders from the Indian country; to forbid all trade with Indians in horses and Indian slaves; to prevent inter-tribal wars; and to elevate the natives to civilized life.

Between 1768 and 1780 Athanase de Mézières, lieutenant-governor of Louisiana, stationed at Natchitoches, controlled the Indians of the Red River Valley known as the Nations of the North and made known the lands of Northern Texas. The Taovaya villages on the Red River became an important center for control of the northern frontier of Texas. De Mézières made a treaty with the Taovaya, October 27, 1771, one of the provisions of which required that these Indians should agree to break off relations with the Comanche unless the latter stopped their attacks on the Spanish settlements of New Mexico. The Taovaya accepted this article and stated that the Comanche had already made a peace treaty with the governor of that province. De Mézières reported, July 4, 1772, that a presidio established at the Taovaya villages would be useful in keeping the English out of Texas and New Mexico; would protect the route between Natchitoches and San Antonio; and would strengthen the New Mexico frontier by bringing the Comanche under control. Later, April 19, 1778, De Mézières urged the establishing of not only a presidio, but also a settlement of Spanish people and Tlascaltecan Indians at the Taovaya villages, on the ground that it was about equidistant from Natchitoches, San Antonio, New Mexico and the Illinois country; that it was well located for the control of both friendly and unfriendly Indians; and that such a settlement would be useful in keeping out the English. A regular route was established soon after 1770 leading from Natchitoches up the Red River to the Taovaya villages, thence southward to San Antonio, and from there the route led northeastward back to Natchitoches. A few years later both San Antonio and the Taovaya villages became starting points for expeditions to New Mexico. In 1788 communication was established for the first time between San Antonio and Santa Fe by an expedition under Captain Mares, who travelled northward from San Antonio to the Red River and westward to the capital of New Mexico. In the same year Pedro Vial and Fragoso journeyed from Natchitoches to the Taovaya villages and westward to Santa Fe. The first Spanish expedition to the Illinois country from Santa Fe was made by a party under Pedro Vial in 1792 and 1793.

The Apache were the most difficult Indians to control. When the Marques de Rubí made his inspection of the northern presidios from Texas to Sonora in 1765, he advised a war of extermination against the Apache. In 1777 Teodoro de Croix, who had been made commandant general of the *Provincias Internas* of New Spain the year before, planned to unite his forces with those of Louisiana and the Indian tribes of the Red River Valley to exterminate the Apache. This scheme was given up when Spain entered the war of American Independence in 1779, although an Apache war was carried on by Juan de Ugalde, the governor of Coahuila. Thus the increased activity of the Spanish Government in Texas and Louisiana had the effect of breaking down the isolation of New Mexico from the east and northeast.

The reforms of Charles the Third included the re-organization of the finances of New Spain, a change in the political organization of the northern provinces, and the occupation of Alta, California. The purpose of the revision of the financial system was to increase the royal revenues, which had not been faithfully administered. The northern provinces of New Spain were called the *Provincias Internas* and consisted of Texas, Nuevo León, New Mexico, Nueva Vizcaya, Sinaloa, Sonora, Lower California, and Upper California, the last of the provinces to be established. These were placed under an officer who had complete control of civil and military affairs and who was responsible to the King. The purpose of this re-organization was to relieve the viceroy of some of his tasks and place the control of the frontier in the hands of an official who could devote his entire attention to the solving of the problems of the northern provinces. The church organization was also extended; the diocese of Linares was created in 1777, consisting of Coahuila, Nuevo León, Nuevo Santander, and Texas; and the diocese of Sonora in 1779, made up of Sinaloa, Sonora, Lower California and Upper California. No provision was made for inclusion of New Mexico in either of these dioceses. The province continued as part of the diocese of Guadiana under the Bishop of Durango until 1852.

Jose de Gálvez, the agent of the King in strengthening the North American possessions of Spain, organized the expedition for the occupation of Upper California. The land party marched northward in 1769 from Loreto, Lower California, to San Diego, in Upper California, and thence to the San Francisco Bay region. The Jesuits, numbering about 5,000, were expelled from Spanish-American possessions in 1767 and the Franciscans took their place in Sonora and Lower California. The mission of San Xavier del Bac, near the present town of Tucson, was placed in charge of Friar Francisco Garcés, who became interested in the country to the north and explored for the first time the route between Sonora and the San Jacinto Mountains in California by way of the Colorado Desert. He also blazed the trail across the Mohave Desert, and through Tejón, Cajón, Tehachapi passes in

Southern California. Finally Garcés opened the route from the Colorado River to the Hopi towns, thus connecting Sonora and Upper California with New Mexico. The preliminary expeditions of Francisco Garcés were made from the mission of San Xavier del Bac to the Gila River near Casa Grande in 1768 and 1770. In the following year he crossed the Yuma Desert to the Colorado River, and from there he made his way to the San Jacinto Mountains across the Colorado Desert. Garcés acted as guide for the expedition of Juan Bautista de Anza in 1774, which had for its purpose the establishment of communication between Sonora and Upper California. Anza led a colony of 250 persons to San Francisco Bay in 1775. Garcés accompanied this expedition to the junction of the Gila and the Colorado River, where he left it, went north to Needles, crossed the Mohave Desert, passed through Cajón Pass to the San Gabriel mission, where the Pueblo of Los Angeles was later founded. Leaving the Pacific coast, Garcés made his way through Tejón Pass to the Upper San Joaquin Valley, and from there through Tehachapi Pass to the Mohave Desert. Upon reaching the Colorado River, Garcés followed up that stream, explored the Grand Canyon of the Colorado and journeyed eastward to the Hopi towns, where he was not cordially received. Since the route from Hopi to the Rio Grande settlements was well known, Garcés had opened the way from New Mexico to California now followed by the Santa Fe railroad.

After the return of Garcés from California in 1776, it was proposed to establish a way station in the form of a mission at some point between Sonora and Upper California. Several locations were proposed for this new outpost. One of these was the junction of the Gila and the Colorado, one the middle Gila, another the Colorado above the junction with the Gila, and still another the Hopi villages. It was finally decided in 1780 to establish two missions on the west side of the Colorado River at the junction of the Gila. No presidio was established, although ten Spanish families were located at each mission for the protection of the friars. In July of 1781 the missions of San Pedro and Concepción were destroyed, Friar Garcés and his three companions were killed, along with almost all of the settlers. In September of 1781 Pedro Fages was sent by the commandant general, De Croix, to punish the Yuma Indians. He succeeded in ransoming some seventy-five persons held captives by these Indians. However, the trail between Sonora and Upper California remained unsafe on account of the hostility of the Yuma Indians.

The organization of the *comandancia general*, known as the *Provincias Internas*, with headquarters at Chihuahua City, gave to New Mexico closer contact with the central government. Almost all of the correspondence of the governor of New Mexico was with the commandant general of the *Provincias Internas*. The first commander was Teodoro de Croix, who was in control from 1776 until 1783, when on September 15, 1783, Felipe de Neve, formerly governor of California, was made commander. De Neve died in November, 1784, and José Rengel was acting commander until the appointment of Jacobo Ugarte y Loyola in 1785. At this time the commander of the *Provincias Internas* was made in a degree subordinate to the viceroy and the provinces were divided into three military commands. The first included Texas, Coahuila, Nuevo León and Nuevo Santander; the second, Nueva Vizcaya and New Mexico; and the third, Sinaloa, Sonora, Upper California and Lower California. This plan did not meet with success, and on December 3, 1787, the provinces were divided into two groups—the *Provincias Internas del Oriente*, made up of Texas, Coahuila, Nuevo León and Nuevo Santander; and the *Provincias Internas del Occidente*, including Nueva Vizcaya, New Mexico, Sinaloa, Sonora, Upper and Lower California. The commanders of these divisions by royal order March 11, 1788, were placed under the control of the viceroy. Ugarte was succeeded by Pedro de Nava, who was appointed March 7, 1790. The commander of the eastern provinces, Col. Juan de Ugalde, resigned and Pedro Nava assumed command of the eastern and western provinces. The organization was again changed by a royal order November 23, 1792, which united the eastern and western provinces and made the commandant independent of the viceroy. However, Upper and Lower California, Nuevo León and Nuevo Santander were separated from the *Provincias Internas* and made subject to the viceroy. Pedro de Nava was succeeded in control of the *Provincias Internas* by Nemesio Salcedo on November 4, 1802, although the royal cédula making the appointment was dated August 26, 1800.

The governors of New Mexico during this epoch were: Pedro Fermín de Mendinueta, from 1767 until 1778; Juan Bautista de Anza, from 1778 until 1789; Fernando de la Concha, from 1789 until 1794; and Fernando Chacón, from 1794 until 1805. On February 11, 1778, the commandant general, Teodoro de Croix, ordered Mendinueta to come to Chihuahua City and leave the government in the hands of Francisco Trebol Navarro, stating that Juan Bautista de Anza, who had been appointed to the governorship in June, 1777, was detained in Sonora. Governor Mendinueta, March 10, 1778, issued an order notifying the people of New Mexico of the temporary appointment of Navarro and of the departure of the governor for Chihuahua. Anza came into office during the fall of 1778. Fernando de la Concha began his term of office August 10, 1789. The royal order appointing Lieut.-Col. Fernando Chacón was dated August 16, 1793. The commandant general, Nava, notified Governor Concha of the appointment of Chacón on January 1, 1794. On August 25, 1794, Chacón assumed office in Santa Fe. Chacón was appointed July 14, 1802, judge in residencia for Juan Gutiérrez, governor of Coahuila, by the Audiencia of Guadalajara, but the commandant general, Pedro de Nava, refused to grant Chacón a leave of absenee, and the latter, on August 30, 1802, resigned the commission. Chacón petitioned the King, November 19, 1802, for a position in Spain on account of an injury received while on a trip to El Paso to take charge of the construction of a bridge, and due to the absence of medical facilities in New Mexico. This request was granted by the royal decree dated August 25, 1803, which also appointed Real de Alencaster governor of New Mexico. This information was transmitted to Chacón by the commandant general, Salcedo, January 18, 1804. It was not until more than a year later that Alencaster arrived in Santa Fe. On March 31, 1805, Alencaster wrote to Salcedo, reporting his journey from El Paso to Santa Fe and his induction into office by Chacón on March 23, 1805.

The political subdivisions of New Mexico were called jurisdictions. A complete description of these jurisdictions was given in a document dated November 24, 1800. The chief official in these subdivisions was the *alcalde mayor*. The manner of appointment is shown by the following: On April 18, 1774, Usebio Durán y Chavez petitioned the governor asking for the position of *alcalde mayor* of Sandia, San Felipe, Santo Domingo and Cochití, for himself for life and for his son. Governor Mendinueta, on May 12, 1775, reported to the viceroy adversely on the request of Chavez and the viceroy ordered that the governor give some other position to Chavez. Later, November 24, 1775, Governor Mendinueta stated that Chavez had left the province without permission. The El Paso district was a part of New Mexico under a lieutenant of the governor. On June 30, 1798, the commandant general, Pedro de Nava, notified Governor Chacón that Lieutenant Cañuelas had been appointed *teniente de gobernador* of Paso del Norte. On September 13, 1796, Chacón reported to Nava that he had made the inspection of Paso del Norte.

The government exercised very close supervision over the people of the jurisdictions of New Mexico. The commandant general, Felipe de Neve, December 10, 1783, ordered that no Indians nor settlers should leave their districts without official permission. Governor Anza, April 24, 1784, instructed that settlers should not visit New Spain without permission of the government. Orders were issued September 25, 1789, to the effect that no dances, meetings or other functions should be held without previous permission from the government. During the month of May, 1793, six of the Tewa Pueblos held a meeting at San Ildefonso without official permission. The investigation ordered by Governor Concha was conducted by *Alcalde Mayor* Manuel García de la Mora, May 30, 1793, who failed to find any proof of plans for an Indian uprising. However, a number of Indians were publicly whipped and others condemned to imprisonment in chains for disobedience of the law. On October 26, 1792, the governor received an order from the viceroy, which required that all innkeepers make daily reports to the magistrates of all transient lodgers. The commandant general, Salcedo, ordered Governor Chacón, November 1, 1803, to collect and send to Chihuahua City all copies of Rousseau's *Le Contrat Social* which might be found in New Mexico. On January 31, 1795, Nava ordered Chacón to prevent the introduction into New Mexico of the proscribed work, *Desengaño del Hombre.*

During the last years of the century much attention was paid to the keeping of foreigners out of New Mexico. Felipe de Neve, May 13, 1784, wrote to Governor Anza, instructing him to strictly enforce the laws against strangers entering the province. Pedro de Nava ordered Governor Chacón, January 31, 1795, to take measures to prevent the French and Americans from drawing the Southwestern Indians away from their allegiance to the Spanish Government. On July 30, 1795, Nava transmitted to Chacón secret royal orders against the entrance of Americans into the province. A semi-annual report on foreigners in New Mexico and on the dissemination of Republican principles was required of Governor Chacón by the commandant general, Pedro de Nava, by an order issued September 30, 1795. On January 6, 1795, Nava ordered Chacón to arrest and confiscate the goods of all the French found in the province, with a few exceptions. Nava stated, July 14, 1797, in a letter to Chacón, that there was a rumor of an English invasion of New Mexico by way of the Mississippi and the Missouri from Halifax, Nova Scotia, and ordered the governor to be vigilant in view of the possible English and American designs upon the loyalty of the Indians and the Spaniards. He also ordered the arrest of all foreigners in the province. Continued rumors of an English invasion led Chacón to write to Nava on the subject on March 29, 1801, and plans were proposed for using Ute and *Genízaro* Indians as spies among the Pawnee, Aas, Abajoses and Cayugas, north of New Mexico. With the cession of Louisiana in 1803 to the United States, the fear of the English invasion from Canada came to an end. On September 6, 1803, Commandant General Salcedo wrote to Governor Chacón relative to the marking of the boundary between Louisiana and New Mexico, but this boundary was not fixed until the Treaty of 1819.

Closer communications were established between the various northern provinces of New Spain and plans were made for the construction of highways between the principal places toward the end of the century. Commandant General Croix, February 15, 1779, stated that it was planned to have a monthly courier between Bay of Espíritu Santo, Texas, and Arispe, Sonora. In the latter part of the same year, December 30, Croix wrote to Anza concerning the construction of a highway between New Mexico and Sonora. The commandant general, January 26, 1789, discussed with the commander at Nacogdoches, in Eastern Texas, and Santa Fe, the plan of opening a road between these two points. On January 24, 1792, Governor Concha made a report to Commandant General Nava on the most direct route between New Mexico and Sonora. A route between Sonora and New Mexico was opened during the first half of 1795. On March 31 of that year Manuel Echeagaray, commander at Arispe, Sonora, asked the governor of New Mexico to furnish two guides to Capt. Joseph Zúñiga to assist in opening the route. The diary of Captain Zúñiga's expedition from Sonora to New Mexico was transmitted by Nava to Chacón on July 9, 1795. The route between Santa Fe and El Paso was continually travelled, as is shown by the order of Felipe de Neve to Governor Anza December 18, 1783, requiring that every few months a detachment of troops and armed settlers be sent from Santa Fe to El Paso with the official correspondence.

Pedro Vial played a prominent part in opening the routes between New Mexico and Texas and the Illinois country. Commandant General Ugarte informed Governor Anza, October 26, 1786, that Vial had agreed to make an expedition from San Antonio, Texas, to Arispe, Sonora, and ordered that assistance be given Vial. A journey was made by Vial from New Mexico through Texas to Louisiana between January 23, 1789, and January 15, 1790. An expedition was led to the Illinois country by Vial in 1792, in which efforts were made to strengthen the alliance between the Spanish and Comanche. The commandant generals, Ugarte and Nava, recommended that Vial be rewarded for his services. When Vial returned from Saint Louis on December 4, 1793, the governor of New Mexico asked that Vial be given a commission as second ensign. On account of the order to arrest all Frenchmen, a suit was brought against Vial, January 6, 1795, but nothing seems to have come of the matter. On May 12 of that year Governor Chacón transmitted to Commandant General Nava the diary of an expedition led by Pedro Vial in which it was reported that the Americans were tampering with the Indian allies north of New Mexico. Vial petitioned July 4, 1803, asking that his services in various expeditions be rewarded, and on January 19, 1804, Commandant General Salcedo authorized the resumption of the allowance given to Vial for his services in New Mexico and Texas.

The first party that entered the Great Basin from New Mexico was led by Juan María de Rivera in 1765. The expedition went from Santa Fe to the San Juan Basin, thence across the southern spur of the La Plata Mountains to the Dolores River. They then crossed the Uncompahgre Plateau and went down the Uncompahgre River to the Gunnison. During the ten years following this exploration fur traders from the Rio Grande Valley made well known the country north of New Mexico as far as the Gunnison River and as far west as the Colorado River, although little is recorded of this trade because the expeditions were contrary to law, traders not being allowed to enter the Ute country. These parties would remain as long as four months collecting furs before returning to the New Mexico settlements. Pedro

Mora, Gregorio Sandoval and Andrés Muñiz went as far north as the Gunnison River on a fur trading journey in 1775.

The Domínguez-Escalante expedition to the Great Basin in 1776 was organized not only for exploring the country, extending Spanish influence, learning about the Indians, surveying the region from the point of view of establishing missions, but also for the purpose of opening a road between New Mexico and the recently founded colony of Alta California. Five years after the Alta California settlements had been started, a land route from Sonora was opened by Juan Bautista de Anza in 1774, but the way was difficult on account of the deserts which had to be crossed. It was believed that an easier route might be found to Alta California by way of New Mexico. In any event, the connecting of Santa Fe and Monterey in Upper California would strengthen the northwestern frontier of New Spain and be useful in keeping out intruders.

The expedition which left Santa Fe on July 29, 1776, for the Great Basin and Monterey consisted of ten persons. The party was probably in charge of Bernardo Miera y Pacheco, a retired officer residing in Santa Fe. However, the diary was written by Francisco Athanasio Domínguez and Silvester Vélez de Escalante, Franciscan friars who were interested in extending their work into a new field. The party passed through Santa Clara Pueblo and Abiquiu, crossed the Rio Cebolla and Rio Nutrias to the Village of El Vado, from which they went to the present settlement of Caracas. They then travelled along the north side of the San Juan Basin, crossing the following rivers: Piedra, Los Pinos, Florida, Las Animas, La Plata and Mancos. On August 12, they arrived at the Dolores River, near the present town of Hogg. Here they failed to find a route to the west and decided to follow the trail which was known to lead to the Ute country. Crossing the Uncompahgre Plateau, they descended the river of the same name to within ten miles of the junction with the Gunnison, where they turned north to that river, which they ascended to a group of Indian villages. From this point until they reached the Hopi villages they traversed unknown lands. On September 2 the party started for the lake country. Traveling northwest, they crossed the Grand and White River and arrived at the Green River in the vicinity of the present settlement of Jensen, Utah. The expedition went in a southwesterly direction to the junction of the Uinta and the Du Chesna River, ascended the latter and Strawberry River to the divide and then went down Diamond Creek and Spanish Fork River to the eastern shore of Utah Lake, where they arrived on September 23, 1776. In the description of the geography of the area, the friars mentioned the existence of Great Salt Lake farther north.

At the end of a three days' sojourn at Utah Lake, the party continued its journey in a southwesterly direction to Sevier River and then through Beaver Valley. The approach of winter caused the party on October 5 to give up the attempt to reach Monterey. They made their way southward by way of Cedar Valley, Ash Creek and Virgin River to the high table-land of the Colorado River. After much difficulty they crossed the Colorado on November 7, at a place near the Utah-Arizona state line. One week later the party arrived at the Hopi towns. These Indians, as was their custom, stated that they desired to be friends of the Spaniards, but did not wish to accept Christianity. After two or three weeks at Zuñi the party proceeded by way of Acoma, Laguna, Isleta, Albuquerque, Sandia, Santo Domingo, to Santa Fe, where they arrived January 2, 1777.

Expeditions had been made in every direction from New Mexico, but so far as is known it was not until 1779 that a Spanish party explored the San Luis Valley of Southeastern Colorado. Governor Juan Bautista de Anza, August 15, 1779, left Santa Fe at the head of 645 men for the purpose of striking a blow at the Comanche chief, Cuerno Verde, who had continually attacked the Spanish settlements in New Mexico. The plan was to enter the Arkansas Valley from the west and thus take the Comanche by surprise. The force marched to San Juan Pueblo, up the Ojo Caliente Valley, and into the present State of Colorado, where they again came to the Rio Grande. After passing northward through the San Luis Valley, they crossed the divide into the Arkansas, where they made a successful attack upon the Comanche before the latter became aware of the presence of the Spanish expedition. Anza then recrossed the divide between the Arkansas and the Rio Grande early in September and returned to Santa Fe by way of Taos.

Frequent census reports were made during the latter part of the eighteenth century. The total population in 1788 was placed at 22,083, while in 1790 the total number was 30,955, showing an increase of more than 8,000 in two years, which does not seem probable. The largest figures were those for 1794, which gave 17,330 Spanish, 5,558 *castas* and 11,368 Indians, making a total of 34,256. The census for 1798 recorded a marked decrease in Spanish population, as is seen by the following: 16,065 Spanish, 10,762 Indians, making a total of 26,827. However, the census for 1799 gave the population as approximately the same as for 1794, that is, 23,769 Spanish, 10,369 Indians, making a total of 34,138. The Spanish population of some of the leading places was as follows: Albuquerque, 1793, 1,650; 1798, 2,279; 1799, 4,020; Santa Fe, 1793, 2,419; 1798, 4,194; La Cañada de Santa Cruz, 1793, 1,650; 1798, 2,594; 1799, 7,351; Abiquiu, 1793, 1,147; 1798, 1,573; Taos, 1793, 403; 1798, 789; 1799, 1,351; El Paso, 1793, 3,622; 1799, 4,943; Sandia and Alameda, 1793, 810; 1798, 384; 1799, 1,490; Isleta district, 1793, 2,680; 1798, 1,771; Jemez, 1793, 375; 1799, 398.

Recommendations for the improvement of the economic conditions in New Mexico were made during the latter part of the eighteenth century. General Ugarte, on October 25, 1788, made a report on New Mexico trade. He advised the encouragement of manufacturing in order that the colony might have a balance in money, the sending of artisan instructors to assist the colonists and exemption from taxation. Governor Concha made a detailed report on the commerce of New Mexico on June 15, 1789, making recommendations for the increase of New Mexico trade. Commandant General Ugarte on December 18, 1789, advised the encouragement of the manufacture of textiles in New Mexico. On May 2, 1793, Governor Concha reported to the viceroy the improvements that had been brought about in New Mexico during his administration. Ten years later, August 28, 1803, Governor Chacón, made a report on agriculture, arts and industries to the *consulado* of Vera Cruz, which was required by the royal order of June 21, 1802. The viceroy of New Spain issued an order October 20, 1803, providing for assistance in the economic development of New Mexico.

It was during the latter part of the eighteenth century that "the intendent system," principally for increasing the royal revenues, was adopted in New Spain. It does not appear that New Mexico was ever included in any of the twelve intendencies. Honest administration of the treasury matters was the great need of New Spain in order to increase the royal revenues. There were forty sources of royal revenue and forty sources of church and municipal taxation. From time to time exemptions had been given to the people of New Mexico on account of the lack of wealth in the province. A petition praying for exemption from the *Alcavala*, which was a sales tax, was signed by the inhabitants on September 27, 1777. Prior to the establishment of the *Provincias Internas*, no officials in New Mexico had paid the *Media Anata*, an income tax. Commandant General Teodoro de Croix on June 13, 1779, sent a royal decree to Governor Anza concerning the payment of the *Media Anata* by government employes. The royal decree of August 17, 1780, provided that each Indian should pay into the war fund one peso, and each Spaniard two pesos. De Croix instructed Anza January 22, 1783, to exempt the Pecos, Zuñi and Hopi Pueblos from the war contribution. Felipe de Neve, January 14, 1784, acknowledged the receipt of 3,677 pesos collected for the war fund in New Mexico and ordered that no further sums be gathered. The royal decree dated February 1, 1796, exempted *alcaldes* and members of *ayuntamientos* from the *Media Anata*. All exemptions from tithe paying were annulled by royal order dated December 24, 1796. The superior council of the royal treasury January 6, 1804, requested a report from the governor of New Mexico on the advantages to that province from the suspension of the *Alcavala*.

The tobacco monopoly was established by the government in 1768 as a part of the reorganization of the finances of New Spain. On March 15, 1784, the commandant general, Felipe de Neve, ordered Governor Anza to prevent the use of the herb called *oja de mata,* a substitute for tobacco, because it reduced the revenues, but this order was countermanded April 27, 1784. The administrator of the government monopolies, Cabrera, on March 29, 1801, nominated Santiago Abreu to take charge of the collection of the taxes on tobacco, playing cards and powder, and instructed him concerning the administration of the same.

Trade was carried on with the nomadic Indians of the Rocky Mountains and the plains to the north and east of New Mexico. This commerce was carried on principally at Taos and Pecos. During the summer of each year a fair was held at Taos. The Comanche, Ute, Jicarilla and other Indians brought deer skins, buffalo hides and Indian captives, which they exchanged for horses, blankets, knives, beads and other articles. There was no money in the province, but a value in pesos was placed upon all commodities. There were four kinds of pesos used in placing of values upon goods: the *peso de plata* was worth eight *reales;* the *peso de projecto,* six *reales;* the *peso antiguo,* four *reales;* and the *peso de la tierra,* two *reales.* Two *reales* are equal to 25 cents. The Spanish traders valued their goods which they bartered to the Indians on the basis of the *peso de plata,* while the Indians' products were bought for the *peso de la tierra.* The increase of the Spanish population at Taos from 160 in 1760 to 1,351 in 1799 was no doubt due to the development of the Indian trade.

The traders were forbidden to go beyond the frontiers to the Ute country in Colorado and to the Comanche country in Western Kansas. A suit was brought against the settlers of Abiquiu by the government on February 3, 1783, for conducting illegal trade with the Ute Indians. On April 10, 1785, Marcelino Manzanares was fined for trading with the Ute. Salvador Salazar, Santiago Lucero and Francisco Valverde twelve days later were tried for the same offense. Manuel Martín and Salvador Salazar petitioned Governor Chacón, August 10, 1796, for the recovery of goods that they had obtained by trade in the Comanche country and which had been confiscated at Taos by the *alcalde,* Antonio José Ortiz. On September 2, 1797, Cristóbal Lovato and others were tried for illegal trade carried on in the Ute country.

The Chihuahua fair held in January of each year at Chihuahua City furnished the chief market for New Mexico. In the late months of the year a caravan made its way down the Rio Grande to El Paso and thence southward to Chihuahua, carrying hides, blankets and Indian captives. The Chihuahua merchants received the goods from New Mexico and supplied products for local consumption in that province and for the Indian trade. The annual value of the commerce carried on between New Mexico and Chihuahua was estimated by the commandant general in 1788 at $30,000. The products brought from New Mexico to Chihuahua were of greater value than the goods taken to that market from New Mexico. This had the effect of keeping the settlers and Pueblo Indians in a state of indebtedness to the traders. The solution for the unsatisfactory economic condition of New Mexico was believed to be the development of manufacturing, which would make the province independent of Chihuahua. Under the existing conditions the profit in the trade was all made by the Chihuahua merchants and their agents in New Mexico, who were usually the *alcaldes* of the various places.

Agriculture was carried on by irrigation along the Rio Grande Valley by the Pueblo Indians and the Spanish settlers. They raised Indian corn, wheat, beans, fruit, chile, and cotton, but never in large enough quantities to have any for exportation. Floods, dry seasons, Indian raids and the absence of large bodies of farming land help to explain the failure to develop any great agricultural wealth. Stock raising also suffered from the dry seasons, but more particularly from Indian raids. Horses were always scarce, due to the theft of many by the Indians. During the latter part of the eighteenth century it was necessary to import horses for the use of the cavalry stationed at the Santa Fe presidio. Only a small number of cattle were held in the province. Sheep raising was the most important branch of the live stock industry, although due to the occupation of the great ranges by the nomadic Indians, it was very limited as compared with the development in later times. Governor Mendinueta, April 14, 1777, prohibited the exportation of sheep and raw wool from the province on account of the scarcity of sheep. Manufacturing was limited to the dressing of skins, to the making of cotton shawls and sheets, and to the weaving of woolen blankets. A royal order dated March 17, 1796, authorized the manufacture and sale of liquor.

Military protection of the Spanish settlements and the Pueblos was the most expensive part of the government. The presidio of Santa Fe was assisted in this work not only by militia and armed settlers, but also by the presidios of Sonora and Nueva Vizcaya. On November 16, 1796, Governor Chacón requested that two new presidios be established, one at Socorro and the other on the Pecos River, but this was not done. Companies, known as flying companies, were organized in the latter part of the eighteenth century for the purpose of bringing under control the Apache Indians. The settlers of Las Truchas, on March 6, 1772, asked for twelve muskets and powder and for protection against the Comanche. This petition was denied. Governor Anza, August 27, 1782, ordered all citizens who did not possess fire-arms to provide themselves with bows and arrows within two months. The following shows the method of appointing officers of the Santa Fe presidio company: On April 13, 1794, Governor Concha wrote to the commandant general, Pedro de Nava, nominating persons for second lieutenant of the Santa Fe presidio company and recommending the promotion of first sergeant, Juan de Dios Peña, to the position of first ensign. On July 29, 1801, Nava in a letter to Chacón confirmed the appointment of Juan de Dios Peña as second ensign of the Santa Fe presidio. The Santa Fe presidio company was officered by the following men on December 1, 1795: Governor and captain, Fernando Chacón; ranking captain, Lieutenant Canuelas; second captain, Antonio de Arce; first ensign, Juan de Abrego; second ensign, Santiago Abreu; chaplain, Friar de Ocio; first sergeant, Juan de Dios Peña; second sergeant, Alarí; third sergeant, Beittia; Navaho interpreters, Francisco García and Antonio García; Comanche interpreter, Alejandro Martín; officers in charge of the express to Chihuahua, called the *cordón,* Joseph Miraval, Joseph Campos and Cristóbal Tenorio. The government made trade agreements with merchants for supplying goods to the troops of the presidios. On October 18, 1789, such an arrangement was made with Pedro Ramos de Verea and others for supplying the Santa Fe presidio during the year 1791. The members of the presidio were subject to military ecclesiastical jurisdiction. The Bishop of Durango, Olivares y Benito, January 7, 1799 ordered that invalids as well as the active list of the Santa Fe presidio company should be subject to the above mentioned jurisdiction. It was common on the Spanish frontier for the son to follow his father in the profession of arms. An instance of this kind is illustrated as follows: Commandant General Salcedo, on March 12, 1803, ordered the transfer of Joseph Manrrique, Jr., from the Santa Fe presidio company to the Second Flying Company, which was commanded by his father, Joseph Manrrique, Sr. Second Lieutenant De Arce was promoted by Salcedo on January 21, 1804, to the office of commander of the Fourth Flying Company. The militia roll for Santa Fe and vicinity was compiled on December 18, 1800, giving race, property and equipment of each person.

The church affairs of the period were marked by the reduction of the number of missions and their re-organization, the appointment of secular clergy, project for the establishment of a bishopric in New Mexico, and complaints against the clergy. Governor Anza recommended the reduction of the number of missions in New Mexico in a report made May 6, 1781. Commandant General Croix wrote to Anza September 15, 1781, concerning the reduction of the number of missions and since the reduction was made early in 1782 it may be assumed that he approved the change. The number of missions was reduced to twenty against the wishes of the friars who asked for an increase in the number of missions and missionaries. The reorganization of the missions was considered in 1792 for on January 16 of that year Commandant General Nava wrote to Governor Chacón on that subject. When Governor Chacón made his *visita,* inspection, between April 21 and August 27, 1796, a complete inventory of all the ornaments and furniture of the churches and convents was made. A new church was built at Santa Cruz and the church at Albuquerque was repaired, the latter under the order of Governor Concha dated February 17,

1793. This work was evidently done by contractors as under the date May 13, 1798 Chacón wrote to Nava concerning the accounting of contractors in charge of the construction of churches in the colony. The Bishop of Durango, Francisco Gabriel de Olivares y Benito, appointed the following secular priests on December 25, 1797: Gregorio Oliden, Santa Fe; Vivian Ortega, Santa Cruz; Jose Ignacio Suarez, Albuquerque; and Juan Joseph Lida, El Paso del Norte. In 1800 the King considered the plan for a bishopric in New Mexico. On August 28, Nava instructed Chacón to make a complete report on the missions and settlements in order that the King might know the exact situation in the province. This report was made by Governor Chacón on November 24, 1800, but it was more than fifty years later before a bishopric was established in New Mexico. Disputes arose between the secular clergy and the friars during the last years of the eighteenth century. Juan de Mier y Villar, an officer of the Inquisition, wrote to Governor Chacón July 14, 1798, relative to these disputes and inquiring about the character and reputation of Friars Prada and Jurado and of priests, Gregorio Oliden and Jose Vivian de Ortega. Evidently the men mentioned above were involved in the dispute. Complaints were made against the *Custodio* of the Franciscan missions by Governor Chacón. Commandant General Salcedo on November 29, 1802 informed Chacón that the *Custodio*, Friar Joseph Mariano Sanchez, had been suspended by the provincial of the Franciscan order in New Spain and that his duties were to be fulfilled by the Vice-Custodio, Friar Joseph de la Prada. Further complaints were made against the clergy by Chacón in 1803. On October 10 he wrote to the *Audiencia* of Guadalajara submitting fifteen documents for the purpose of proving the misconduct of Friar Isidro Cadelo and Cura Joseph Vivian de Ortega.

Relations with the nomadic Indian tribes occupied a large place in the affairs of the province during this period. The Comanche were on peace terms with the Spanish, but that did not prevent them from making attacks at times. A treaty was made with them in 1771 and Governor Mendinueta urged the people to be careful in fulfilling the terms of the treaty. A battle between the Comanche and the Apache occurred in November, 1777, in which the Apache lost thirty men and forty horses. Commandant General De Croix ordered that an alliance be made with the Comanche and that they be encouraged in their attacks upon the Apache. Mendinueta in his instructions to his successor, March 14, 1778, stated that the Comanche, although at peace, should not be trusted. He said that their policy was to be at peace with Taos and at war with the rest of the province. Between 1783 and 1789 the commanders of the *Provincias Internas* addressed five letters to the governor of New Mexico relative to treaties of peace with the Ute and

Comanche. Between 1790 and 1792 upon at least six occasions the governor of New Mexico reported that the Ute, Comanche, Jicarilla and Navaho were keeping peace with the government. Gifts were made to these Indians as a price for peace. On December 31, 1788, the governor submitted a statement of gifts made to these Indians from the Indian fund during the period beginning August 28, 1788, and ending December 31. The Spanish rendered aid to the Comanche in their war against the Pawnee in the summer of 1790. Record of this campaign is in the form of the diary and itinerary of Juan de Dios Peña from June 12, 1790 until August 8, 1790. In the summer of 1791 Nava planned an attack upon the eastern Apache, consisting of the Lipan, Mescalero and Lipiyan bands, with the aid of the Comanche. Chacón reported to the Viceroy July 20, 1792, that the Comanche with Spanish aid had conducted a campaign against the Lipan, Lipiyan and Llanero Apache. Later in the year November 10, Chacón wrote to Nava transmitting a report of the Comanche chiefs, Equeracapa and Hachacas, on a campaign conducted by them against the eastern Apache. Five years later Nava ordered Chacón, October 19, 1797, to induce the Comanche to make two campaigns against the Mescalero Apache and their allies, the Lipan and Faraon Apache. Nava instructed Chacón, January 3, 1798, to continue the policy of inciting the Comanche to make war upon the eastern Apache.

The Navaho were at peace with the Spanish during the years from 1767 until 1804, although in 1778 Mendinueta stated that they were said to be making raids upon Spanish settlements in conjunction with the Gila Apache. There are sixteen documents relating to the hostilities of the Navaho between May, 1804, and May, 1805. On August 8, 1804, Commandant General Salcedo asked the governor for his report on the two Navaho campaigns that had been conducted up to that time and the advisability of a third. The lieutenant commander of the *Provincias Internas,* Antonio Narbona, with troops from a number of the Sonora and Nueva Vizcaya presidios as well as from the Santa Fe presidio took charge of the Navaho campaign. On January 24, 1805, Narbona wrote to Governor Chacón from Zuñi giving an account of a battle which took place between the Spanish soldiers and the Navaho on January 17-18 in the Canyon de Chelly. It is evident from the fact that the Navaho sued for peace in the spring of 1805 that the campaigns had been rather disastrous for them. On March 25, 1805, Governor Chacón drew up the terms of peace which he believed should be offered to the Navaho. The terms stated were as follows: No claim on the part of the Navaho to the Cebolleta region should be allowed because they had abandoned that locality years before; no claim should be allowed for Indian livestock in the possession of the Spaniards; four Indian women should be exchanged for the two Spanish captives held by the Navaho; their range should not extend farther east than the Rio del Oso, Canyon of Juan Tafoya, and San Mateo; and they should surrender 4,000 sheep, 150 cattle and 60 horses stolen by them. Governor Alencaster, April 12, 1805, reported that the Navaho had made overtures for peace and on May 15, Alencaster submitted to the Commandant General, Salcedo, the terms of the peace which had been made with the Navaho.

The most troublesome of all the nomadic Indians were the bands of Apache who ranged from the plains of eastern Texas to the Gila Valley in the present state of Arizona. Governor Mendinueta on March 14, 1778, advised that no peace should be made with the Apache and that a war of extermination should be conducted against them. On August 10, 1788, General Rengel, commander of the forces of the *Provincias Internas*, reported to Governor Anza that a successful campaign had been conducted against the Apache. Commandant General Ugarte stated November 21, 1789, that advantages had been obtained over the White Mountain Apache. Peace treaties with the Apache bands of the Sacramento Mountains and also the Gila Apache were made on July 13, 1790. The Mescalero Apache made an attack upon the Comanche on the Rio Nueces on January 11, 1791. The bands of Apache in the Magdalena Mountains attacked the town of Tomé, July 1, 1791, and reprisals were made by the Spanish force. A number of Apache chiefs and their people agreed to peace during the summer of 1791 and were settled at Sabinal. On October 31 a campaign against the Natages Apache under command of Lieutenant Vincente Troncoso and First Sergeant Juan de Abrego was brought to a close. On April 14, 1792, a council was held at Sabinal for the purpose of gaining the submission of the Gila Apache. A few days later, April 22, there was a council with the friendly Apache, who had been settled at Sabinal. Governor Concha stated April 30, 1793, that the Apache had made an attack upon Acoma and Laguna and that the Spanish and Indian allies had retaliated. It was reported on December 27, 1793, that the Apache located at Sabinal were becoming hostile. Governor Chacón, on February 5, 1795, transmitted to Chihuahua City the diary of a campaign against the Gila Apache. Nava reported the recent punishment of the Mescalero Apache to Governor Chacón, April 20, 1796. In the summer of 1797 the Apache made depredations upon Acoma and Zuñi and Governor Chacón sent a force to reconnoiter the Mimbres and El Piñon Mountains. Strict orders were given by Nava to Chacón forbidding Apache to enter the province of New Mexico even though they were seeking peace. Joseph Manrrique of the Santa Fe presidio was sent against the Apache of the Magdalena, San Mateo and Piñon Mountains on July 16, 1799. Peace was made with these Apache bands on November 2 of the same year, but this did not last for on June 26, 1800, Captain José Manuel de Ochoa led a force against these same

Indians. Difficulties continued in the districts as shown by the fact that Captain Ochoa on November 30, 1800, asked for the aid of a number of Taos Indians and *genízaros* to assist in scouting the Magdalena Mountains. Captain Ochoa reported December 27, 1800, that the Apache had been driven out of the Capitan Mountains and that they were being pursued by the Comanche. Orders were issued on February 5, 1803, for an attack upon the Apache of the Sacramento Mountains by two detachments from Nueva Vizcaya and one from New Mexico. Governor Chacón on August 29, stated that a campaign against the Apache of Sierra Blanca, of Sacramento and Magdalena Mountains had been carried out by Ensign Juan de Dios Peña and Captain José Manrrique. The return of two troops of soldiers who had been fighting the Apache and the departure of a third was reported by Governor Chacón to Commandant General Salcedo on October 10, 1803. The Apache were so far from being defeated that on March 30, 1804, an attempted league for revolt was organized consisting of the Navaho, Gila Apache, Jano Apache and the Apache of the El Paso district.

The Hopi Pueblos were visited by Francisco Garcés early in 1776 and late in that same year by the missionary of Zuñi, Friar Silvestre Vélez de Escalante. During the years intervening between these visits and the expedition of Juan Bautista de Anza to the Hopi Pueblos in the fall of 1780, a serious drouth occurred causing famine, pestilence and raids by the Ute and the Navaho. The population was said to have been reduced from 7,494 in 1776 to 798 in 1780. The number of sheep had decreased from 30,000 to 300. The crop for 1780 amounted to only 500 bushels of corn. Anza stated on May 26, 1780, that in carrying out the royal order of February 20, 1779, he had sent messengers to the Hopi informing them that if they would consent he was ready to assist them in locating among the Rio Grande Pueblos. Anza informed De Croix that the hostility of the Hopi Pueblos to Christanity continued, but that even if this were overcome the Navaho would oppose the plan of moving the Hopi Indians to the Rio Grande Valley, as they had recently massacred and made prisoners of two parties of Hopi who had attempted to seek the protection of the Spanish settlements. Anza through messengers received word on August 25, 1780, that forty Hopi families were willing to move to the Rio Grande Valley.

The expedition commanded by Governor Anza, which left Santa Fe on September 10, 1780, was made up of thirty-six soldiers from the presidio, two friars, forty Tewa Indians, forty Keres and eight Hopi, making a total of 126 in the party. On September 18 Anza sent messengers to the Hopi stating that he would arrive at their Pueblos on his peaceful mission in four days, and on September 22 he arrived at one of the former villages, called Aguatobi, where the messengers rejoined his company. The messengers stated that the chiefs told them that notwithstanding the misfortunes of war and hunger they and their people did not wish to desert their homes, also that the forty families who had expressed a desire to move to the Rio Grande Valley had departed from the Hopi villages about a month earlier and had been captured by the Navaho. Anza offered to aid the Pueblos, but the Indians refused to accept the gifts, saying that they had nothing to give in return as was their custom. On September 24, thirty people assembled, who agreed to submit to Spanish authority. On the following day Anza began his return journey to Santa Fe, where he arrived on October 5, 1780. In all, about 200 Hopi Indians were settled among the Rio Grande Pueblos. Anza wrote to De Croix November 15, 1781, stating that he had sent messengers to the Hopi towns in order to bring about the removal of some of the Indians, but that his efforts had met with failure. He added that an epidemic of smallpox which had continued for a period of five months would probably result in extermination of Hopi Pueblos.

CHAPTER XVI

LAST YEARS OF THE SPANISH REGIME, 1805-1821

The governorship of New Mexico was held by acting governors after 1808. The following men held the office during this period:

Joaquín del Real Alencaster	1805-1808
José Manrrique	1808-1814
Alberto Maynez	1814-1816
Pedro María de Allande	1816-1818
Facundo Melgares	1818-1822

The Spanish political system, both in Spain and New Spain, during the first twenty years of the nineteenth century was disorganized by the attempts to change the basis of political power from that of the dynasty to that of the people. Unrighteous elections and appeals to arms accompanied by the absence of an enlightened public opinion and political training were responsible for the failure upon the part of the new government to establish law and order. Twice within the period the dynasty of the Bourbon, Ferdinand VII, was overthrown by those demanding a government based upon the sovereignty of the people. After the occupation of Spain by Napoleon in April of 1808, local councils were formed to oppose the usurper. The supreme central council was organized in September which ordered the oath of allegiance to be taken to the absent Ferdinand. Governor Manrrique of New Mexico issued a proclamation decreeing that the oath of allegiance to Ferdinand VII should be taken by the inhabitants of the province on November 13, 1808. The supreme central council resigned in January, 1810, after having appointed a council of regency consisting of five men, who in turn were to call a *Cortes* made up of representatives from Spain and the Americas. The decree establishing this *Cortes* was published in New Mexico by Governor Manrrique on March 18, 1810. The *Cortes* meeting in September appointed a new regency of three members which was under its control. The oath of allegiance which was taken to the supreme council of regency at Santa Fe on August 10, 1810, was replaced in the spring of 1811 by an oath of allegiance to the *Cortes*. Commandant General Salcedo of the *Provincias Internas* on April 1, 1811, ordered all officers of the northern provinces of New Spain to take the oath to the new government. The constitution of 1812 drawn up by the *Cortes* provided for a ministerial monarchy based on sovereignty of the people and the responsibility of the King's ministers to the *Cortes*. Several of the decrees by this body reached New Mexico. On February 20, 1813, the *Cortes* ordered a Te Deum in celebration of the Russian victory over Napoleon. The Inquisition was abolished by an order dated June 8, 1813, and the secularization of all missions was decreed September 13, 1813.

The defeat of Napoleon by the re-actionary powers of Europe brought about the restoration of the dynastic government of Ferdinand VII, the overthrow of the *Cortes* and the suppression of liberalism. The celebration of the return of Ferdinand VII took place in Santa Fe on September 6, 1814. Several orders received by the governor of New Mexico reflect the re-actionary nature of the restored government. A cédula was issued December 28, 1814, which provided for the re-establishment of the old system of local government in the colonies. On September 1, 1814, Ferdinand VII issued an order which limited the freedom of the press. On July 31, 1815, the Inquisition, which had been abolished by the *Cortes* and re-established by Ferdinand VII, was strengthened by an order which required that secular aid should be given to it. The oath of allegiance to Ferdinand VII was taken at El Paso on October 15, 1815, at which time, according to the report, the people expressed their hatred for the constitutional government established by the *Cortes*.

The absolutism of Ferdinand VII was temporarily overthrown by a revolt which began on January 1, 1820, and which demanded the restoration of the Constitution of 1812. Ferdinand VII took an oath of allegiance to the Constitution of 1812 on March 16, 1820 thereby restoring the government of the people under responsible ministers decreed by that constitution. Among the orders received in Santa Fe relative to this new government the following appear: A decree of Ferdinand VII on election of deputies to the *Cortes* of 1820-21; a letter of Ferdinand VII April, 1820, announcing his adhesion to the Constitution of 1812 and exhorting Spanish America to end the War of Independence; the order of the viceroy, June 7, 1820, prescribing the form of taking the oath to the Constitution of 1812 and liberating certain classes of prisoners in celebration of the occasion; and the re-enactment of laws in September, 1820, passed by the *Cortes* in 1812, relative to personal service of Indians and restrictions upon industry. The town councils which had been ordered by the *Cortes* and abolished by the order of Ferdinand VII, July 30, 1814, were again established in the colonies when the constitution was restored. The commandant general, García Condé, instructed Governor Melgares of New Mexico, September 30, 1820, to send to the government in Spain the documents concerning the installation of the officers and the proceedings of the constitutional *ayuntamientos* formed in the province. The overthrow of the constitutional government in Spain by the great powers of Europe in the Spring of 1823 did not change matters in New Spain because the independent government had already been set up in Mexico.

The government of New Spain found itself without a master which it was willing to recognize in the Spring of 1808 when Napoleon took over control of the Spanish government. Two plans of action were proposed, the one by European Spaniards in control of the offices, the other by the American Spaniards, who strongly desired to control some of the offices. The Europeans intended that the government should continue along the same lines as it had existed in the past, while the creoles desired to establish a representative council similar to that in Spain which should control affairs until Ferdinand VII should be restored to his throne. A general council representing the provinces of New Spain convened in August, 1808. It asked that a provisional government based on the sovereignty of the people be established, but the European Spanish element prevented the adoption of this plan. In a second general council the supreme central junta in Spain was recognized. The European Spaniards, however, feared José de Iturrigaray, the viceroy, and a group of them decided to get rid of him. On the night of September 15, 1808, the viceroy was made prisoner at the palace and the European Spaniards placed Pedro de Garibay in his place. Secret societies were then formed under the title of *Caballeros Racionales* by the creoles. The first plot organized for the overthrow of Spanish authority in New Spain was planned by José María Obesa and Friar Vicente de Santa María in the City Valladolid, now called Morelia. The uprising was to take place in December, 1809, but the conspiracy was discovered and crushed. The revolutionary society of Queretaro led by Father Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla and Ignacio Allende planned to take control of the important towns of Guanajuato and then declare for independence. On September 15, 1810, some of the members of the society were arrested and on the following morning open revolt began. The insurgent army was successful during the last days of September in taking the City of Guanajuato. The provinces of Sinaloa, Sonora, Nuevo Santander, Coahuila and Texas declared for independence by January, 1811. The opposing armies met on January 17, 1811, near the City of Guadalajara which resulted in the flight of the rebels followed by the Royalists towards Zacatecas. The flight continued across Coahuila towards Texas, but a short distance from Saltillo one of the officers of the insurgent army turned traitor and succeeded in handing over to the Royalists Hidalgo, Allende and several other rebel leaders. The Hidalgo revolution had been successfully crushed, but revolutionary movements were to continue.

The principal leader in carrying forward the revolutionary movement was another native priest, José María Morelos. His first campaign was a part of the Hidalgo uprising. In February, 1812, with 3,000 followers, he marched upon Cuautla, some fifty miles from Mexico City, where his forces were finally dispersed by the Royalist General Calleja. The Constitution of 1812 was published September 28 of that year. Its provisions tended to liberalize the government of New Spain, but in less than two years the old regime was re-established. The rebels refused to accept the new constitution, while the *Cortes* demanded that they be crushed. A definite declaration of independence was issued by the congress of the insurgents on November 6, 1813, and a year later, following the restoration of the dynastic government in Spain, the constitution of Apatzingan was signed on October 22, 1814. During the summer of 1815 the viceroy's forces were successful in defeating several bands of insurgents. At Tezmalaca the insurgents were defeated and a short time later Morelos was captured. His execution took place on December 22, 1815.

The revolution continued for two years after the death of Morelos. In 1816 rebel bands amounting to about 9,000 armed men were in the field under Mier y Terán, Vincente Guerrero, Guadalupe Victoria and other less well known leaders. The Royalist forces opposing them numbered about 80,000 men. A new viceroy was appointed by the restored Ferdinand VII to take the place of Felix María Calleja, who had been appointed by the revolutionary regency. Viceroy Juan Ruíz de Apodaca defeated Mier y Terán in January of 1817 and captured Tehuacan. Late in the same year the revolutionary leader, Francisco Javier Mina, was captured and the stronghold of the revolutionists, *Los Remedios*, was taken January 1, 1818. Two small bands of revolutionists, one under Vincente Guerrero, and the other under Guadalupe Victoria, were still in the field.

The revolution of 1820 in Spain threatened the special privileges of the conservatives. On May 3, 1820, the Constitution of 1812 was proclaimed in Mexico, and by September the elections provided for in that instrument had been held. Not being able to foresee that the *Cortes* would be overthrown within a few years, the higher clergy and the European Spaniards believed that their privileges could be protected in no other manner except by separation from the anti-clerical *Cortes* in Spain. The higher clergy and the European Spaniards decided to oppose the putting into force of the Constitution of 1812. Iturbide was taken into their confidence and plans were made by which he was to be placed at the head of a body of the viceroy's troops for the purpose of opposing Vincente Guerrero. Between November 20, 1820, and the following February several skirmishes occurred in which Iturbide was not successful. He finally persuaded Guerrero in February to meet him at Iguala. The plan drawn up and proclaimed to the country on February 24, 1821, contained the famous three guarantees, namely, the Roman Catholic Church, independence and race equality. The government was to be a constitutional monarchy headed by some member of the reigning Spanish house, in case Ferdinand VII declined the honor. During the summer of 1821 a number of the Royalist commanders joined the forces of Guerrero and Iturbide. Juan O'Donoju, appointed viceroy by the *Cortes*, arrived in Vera Cruz on July 30, 1821, but was unable to proceed to the capital. The Treaty of Córdoba was signed by Iturbide and O'Donoju on August 24, 1821. This document was practically the same as the plan of Iguala, except that it provided in case there was no one appointed from the Spanish Royalty that the *Cortes* of Mexico might name some one as emperor of Mexico. Iturbide occupied the capital on September 27 and immediately appointed a regency made up of conservatives whose duty it was to organize the government. The revolutionists were ignored and formed a strong opposition to Iturbide's personal aggrandizement.

While Spain and Mexico were undergoing their revolutionary changes which destroyed the Spanish empire, the United States was rapidly expanding toward the Rocky Mountains. In 1803 the frontier of settlements had only in places crossed the Alleghany Mountains, but by 1821 the area east of the Mississippi and south of the Great Lakes had become a well settled region and two states west of the Mississippi had been admitted to the Union. The fur traders in Saint Louis extended their activities up the Missouri River and along the Platte and the Arkansas to the Rocky Mountains. The Louisiana purchase in 1803 increased the claims of the United States to western country, although these were very indefinite until 1819. The frontier of explorations was moved westward to the Rocky Mountains along the whole western border of the Mississippi.

Immediately following the transfer of the Louisiana and the Illinois country to the United States by Spain in 1804, negotiations were begun for the determination of boundaries. The United States claimed that West Florida extending from the Mississippi to the Perdido, that Texas to the Rio Grande, that all the valleys of the western branches of the Mississippi, and that the Oregon country, were a part of the Louisiana that France had ceded to Spain in 1763. Spain on the other hand held that Oregon, West Florida and Texas had never been a part of Louisiana and that the Spanish had a more valid claim to the upper valleys of the Arkansas and the Platte in the period before 1763 than did the French. Various proposals were made between 1804 and 1807 which related particularly to the establishing of a neutral ground in Texas, but no settlement was made in this first period of negotiation. In 1817 the first of a series of proposals for the western boundary of Louisiana was made by Spain in which she agreed to cede Florida providing the United States would give up its claims to all lands west of the Mississippi River. In reply to this the United States made her first concession January 16, 1818, agreeing to accept as the western boundary of Louisiana the Colorado River of Texas from its mouth to its source, and thence north indefinitely along the 102 meridian, in place of the earlier claim of the Rio Grande from its mouth to its source. The sixth offer of the United States, October 31, 1818, agreed to accept the line of the Sabine River to the Red River and along that river to its source, from there to the source of the Rio Grande, thence north along the mountains to the 41 parallel and along that line to the Pacific coast. This plan showed that the United States had determined to give up Texas and find her compensation in Florida and Oregon. Spain's sixth line, November 16, 1818, accepted the line offered by the United States from the Gulf of Mexico to the Red River, but refused to run the boundary westward along that river, instead agreeing to extend the line directly north from the Red River along the 94 meridian. The eleventh offer of the United States was made on February 13, 1819, and provided that the line should run along the Red River to the 100 meridian, along that meridian to the Arkansas, along the Arkansas to its source, due north to the 42 parallel and along that parallel to the Pacific coast. This offer was accepted by the Spanish commissioners on February 15, 1819. On February 21, 1821, the ratifications were finally exchanged and the boundary line between the possessions of the United States and Spain along the Texas and New Mexico border was fixed just a few months before Mexico became independent of Spain.

The area between Santa Fe and Saint Louis was claimed during these years by Spain and the United States. Spain attempted to control the Indians and prevent citizens of the United States from entering the region. Trade by persons from the United States with Texas and New Mexico was absolutely forbidden. Philip Nolan in the spring of 1801 conducted a filibustering expedition into Texas along the south side of the Red River Valley. On March 21, 1801, Nolan's party was attacked by a Spanish force sent against them from Nacogdoches, Nolan was killed and the other members of his party were made prisoners, two of whom were met by Captain Pike in 1807. Solomon Colly was a prisoner at Santa Fe and begged Pike to aid in his release upon his return to the United States. David Fero, also of Nolan's party and formerly an ensign in the company of Pike's father, was held a prisoner at San Gerónimo, near Chihuahua. He asked Pike to assist him in gaining his liberty. Pike wrote to Commandant General Salcedo, asking him to allow the men of Nolan's expedition to return to the United States.

A number of references are made to the activity of the Spanish and citizens of the United States along the northern frontier of New Mexico between 1804 and the arrival of Pike on the headwaters of the Rio Grande in January, 1807. The governor of New Mexico in 1804 sent a command of fifty-two men to visit the Indians of the Arkansas Valley, who were unwilling to ally with the Spaniards. In the spring of 1804 William Morrison, a well-known merchant of Kaskaskia, Illinois, sent a Frenchman, Baptiste La Lande, with a small amount of merchandise to attempt to open trade with Santa Fe. La Lande went up the Platte Valley to the Rocky Mountains and then found his way southward by means of Indian guides to the New Mexican settlements. After having been sent to Chihuahua La Lande became a Spanish citizen and settled in Santa Fe, failing to give an account to his employer, Morrison. Three years later the governor of New Mexico used La Lande in attempting to discover the purpose of Pike's expedition, but without success. In the following year an expedition under Corporal Juan Lucero was sent by Governor Alencaster to the Kiowa and the Comanche and was successful in making an alliance with them. On July 19, 1805, Commandant General Salcedo reported that two Frenchmen and one American had arrived at Chihuahua evidently sent there by Governor Alencaster. James Purcell in the spring of 1805 was among the Indians in the vicinity of the scources of the South Platte River, who desiring to trade with Santa Fe sent Purcell to obtain permission. He arrived in June, 1805, but was not allowed to return to his Indian friends. Purcell practised his trade, carpentry, at Santa Fe, where he was held until the end of the Spanish period when he returned to St. Louis. On October 2, 1805, Commandant General Salcedo wrote to Governor Alencaster ordering him to get all the information obtainable upon the movements of the Americans north of New Mexico and instructing him to use great care in keeping the good will of the Indians along the Missouri River. Alencaster reported, November 20, that Pedro Vial and Jose Chalbert had made a journey north of Taos and returned bringing with them four Frenchmen.

The official exploration of the southern part of the Louisiana country was planned by Thomas Jefferson at the same time that the Lewis and Clark expedition was authorized. As early as November 16, 1803, Jefferson proposed that an exploring party be sent up the Red River to its source, across to the source of the Arkansas and down that river. William Dunbar and George Hunter explored the Washita Valley and Thomas Freeman the Red River Valley for a distance of about 600 miles in the summer of 1804. In 1806 Thomas Freeman and Richard Sparks were sent up the Red River Valley, but were intercepted by the Spanish expedition from Nacogdoches under Captain Francis Viana.

Lieut. Zebulon Montgomery Pike carried out the most important official United States exploration in the southwest before the end of the Spanish regime. General Wilkinson between April 30, 1806, when Pike returned from his exploration of the Upper Mississippi, and June 24, proposed an expedition to Pike, which should follow up the Arkansas, cross over to the Red River and follow down that river to Natchitoches. While Pike's expedition was being organized Lieut. Facundo Melgares was sent to New Mexico with 100 cavalrymen from Chihuahua, the capital of the *Provincias Internas*. The American plans to explore the southwest had been reported to the commandant general at Chihuahua. Melgares arrived in Santa Fe early in June, 1806, and his force was augmented by 500 mounted New Mexico militiamen. The commissions which Melgares carried with him to be given to the Indian chiefs of the plains were dated Santa Fe, June 15, 1806. The purpose of the expedition was to turn back Pike and any other American explorers, to drive out of the country west of the Missouri all traders from the United States, and to strengthen alliances between the Spanish and the Indian tribes of the plains. The Melgares expedition followed down the Red River Valley about 600 miles and then turned north to the Arkansas to Pawnee villages in the vicinity of the Great Bend of that river. Pike was informed on September 25, 1806, that the expedition had left these villages only three or four weeks before. Leaving 240 men at the Arkansas Melgares proceeded some distance north, but due to lack of supplies, discontent among his men and fear of an Indian attack he did not continue his journey as ordered to the Missouri. Some American traders found along the Arkansas were ordered out of the country, they agreeing to go to Natchitoches. Melgares returned to Santa Fe early in October, 1806.

Pike's instructions were issued by General Wilkinson on June 24, 1806. The war department of the United States had not ordered the exploration, but did not oppose it. Pike was commanded to hold conferences with the Indians of the plains and to make a reconnaissance of the Arkansas and the Red River Valley. The party consisting of twenty-three men left St. Louis on July 15, 1806. They reached the Arkansas near the Great Bend on August 28, at which place Lieut. James Wilkinson with five men was detached to explore the lower Arkansas Valley. Pike and the rest of his party composed of Sergeant Meek, Corporal Jackson, Dr. John H. Robinson, eleven privates and an interpreter, traveled up the Arkansas Valley and spent the months of December and January exploring the headwaters of that river. In the latter part of January Pike decided to cross the mountain divide between the Arkansas and what he professed to believe was the Red River, though it seems probable that he knew he was crossing into the Rio Grande Valley. Three members of the party and the interpreter who were not able to continue the journey across the mountains on account of frozen feet were later rescued. On January 28, 1807, Pike reached the San Luis Valley near the present town of Alamosa, Colorado, followed down the Rio Grande Valley to the Conejos, a western branch of the Rio Grande, ascended that river five miles and built a fort, which was for protection against the Indians while the men were rescuing those who had been left behind.

Only a short time after the establishment of the post the Spanish authorities in Santa Fe became aware of its existence and took measures to destroy it. On February 7, 1807, Dr. John Robinson was sent by Pike to Santa Fe ostensibly to collect the debt owned by La Lande to Morrison, but in reality to learn what he could about the country. Robinson later in telling his story to Pike stated that he started west from the Conejos, but was informed by Indians that Santa Fe was to the south. Robinson arrived in Santa Fe on February 15 and told Governor Alencaster that he was a member of a party of traders. On the following day two Spaniards visited Pike's fort on the Conejos and departed on February 17. It is probable that these messengers made their report in Santa Fe before the governor sent out his expedition, although Alencaster stated that as soon as he heard Robinson's story he ordered a force to proceed to the fort. This command consisting of fifty cavalrymen and fifty mounted militiamen officered by Lieut. Ignacio Sotelo and Bartolomé Fernandez, arrived at Pike's fort on the Conejos, February 25, 1807. Lieutenant Sotelo informed Pike that the governor of New Mexico had sent them to assist the party in finding its way to the sources of the Red River, which were an eight days' journey from Santa Fe. Pike understood this offer of aid to be a polite manner of ordering him and his companions to proceed to Santa Fe, which he agreed to do. A part of the Spanish force was left at the fort on the Conejos to await the arrival of the relief party that had been sent to bring in those who with some of the baggage had been left in the vicinity of the present Cañon City, Colorado on January 14, 1807. Pike and six of the soldiers arrived in Santa Fe on March 3, the remainder of the party not reaching that place until March 18, after Pike had left for Chihuahua. The interview with the governor took place on the evening of March 3 and was resumed on the following day. To the governor's question, "You come to reconnoiter our country, do you?" Pike replied, "I marched to reconnoiter our own." The trunk containing the records of the expedition was taken and Governor Alencaster stated that it would be sent to Commandant General Salcedo at Chihuahua. In reply to Pike's question asking whether he was a prisoner, the governor said that he was not, but that he must proceed to the capital of the *Provincias Internas*, Chihuahua. During the afternoon of March 4 the escort, commanded by Captain Nicolás de Almanza, Pike and the six soldiers began their journey southward reaching La Bajada that evening. A short distance south of Albuquerque, on March 7, Lieut. Facundo Melgares took charge of the escort and Dr. John Robinson joined the party. The expedition followed the Rio Grande to El Paso and then leaving the river passed southward to the City of Chihuahua, where they arrived on April 2. Commandant General Salcedo on the same day summoned Pike to appear before him and ordered Lieutenant Melgares, who had charge of the records of the expedition, to turn them over. The papers were then sorted and twenty-one of them kept by Salcedo, an inventory of which was given to Pike on April 8. While the commandant general investigated the expedition in order to determine what should be done with these members of the United States army, who had fallen into his hands in the time of peace, Pike was entertained by Lieutenant Melgares and his father-in-law, Col. Alberto Maynez, both of whom were later acting governors of New Mexico in the period before independence was established. Salcedo informed Pike on April 25 that the remainder of his party under Sergeant William Meek, which had arrived in Chihuahua probably about April 15, would not be permitted to join Pike in New Spain, but that they would be allowed to proceed to the United States at some later time. The journey from Chihuahua City in Nueva Vizcaya to Natchitoches, Louisiana, was begun on April 28. The party consisted of an escort, Lieutenant Pike, Dr. John Robinson and six soldiers. They passed through Parras, Coahuila, on May 17 and reached the Rio Grande at the Presidio del Rio Grande on June 1, forty miles below Eagle Pass, having traveled along the Old Spanish Trail from Coahuila into Texas. A week later they were received in a friendly manner by Governor Cordero at San Antonio, Texas. On July 1 the party arrived at the United States fort at Natchitoches. Thus the main party of Pike's expedition had successfully returned to the United States. That part of the company which had separated from Pike at the fort on the Conejos had not returned from Chihuahua on May 3, 1808, when Pike wrote to the war department concerning the detention of the interpreter, Baroney Vasquez, Serg. William E. Meek, Corp. Jeremiah Jackson, and five privates.

Measures were taken during 1807 by Governor Alencaster to prevent American influences from entering New Mexico. Alencaster reported April 1, 1807, that the order dated February 17, providing for the seizure of all copies of newspapers published in the United States, had been sent throughout the province. On December 12 the governor sent four Frenchmen and Santiago Clamorgan to Chihuahua, who had evidently come into the province from the north. José María de Arce was given orders by Governor Manrrique November 2, 1808, instructing him to carry on scouting expeditions in the direction of the Arkansas River for the purpose of keeping out foreigners. Arce, stationed at Taos, reported to Manrrique November 23, stating the measures which he believed should be taken to prevent an invasion of the province by the Pawnee and the Anglo-Americans. Captain Amangual arrived in New Mexico from San Antonio, Texas, on June 16, 1808, at the head of a military expedition, consisting of three companies. This party had crossed the Comanche country where conferences had been held in order to obtain information about the Anglo-Americans and to persuade the Indians to assist the Spaniards in keeping out the Americans. Under date of April 18, 1809, the Viceroy ordered the registration of all foreigners in the province. Governor Manrrique, August 31, informed Salcedo that an Anglo-American settlement had been made on the Missouri River, which was considered to be within the Spanish territory. Friar Joseph de Vera, living at Taos, advised Governor Manrrique that the Indians and some whites were holding secret meetings in the *estufas* at Taos, that he believed some of the whites to be Anglo-Americans, and that the matter should be investigated.

Several attempts were made after Pike's time to open trade between St. Louis and Santa Fe before the establishment of the independence of Mexico in 1821. The first of these consisted of a party of three Americans and a Spanish guide, who left St. Louis in November of 1809. These men, Joseph McClanahan, Robert Smith, James Patterson, and Manuel Blanco, were sent from Santa Fe to Chihuahua by Governor Manrrique on March 31, 1810. Commandant General Salcedo, May 13, sent to Governor Manrrique newspaper notices of the above expedition, which had been forwarded to him by the viceroy from Mexico City and urged that great precautions be taken to prevent Añglo-Americans from entering New Mexico. José Urioste returned on October 6, 1810, to Santa Fe from a reconnaissance of the Arkansas and the Almagre River and denied the rumor that Anglo-Americans were at the confluence of these rivers. Commandant General Salcedo on September 19, 1811, informed Governor Manrrique that Comanche Indians had brought reports to Chihuahua of an Anglo-American force which was preparing to invade New Mexico. Manrrique was instructed to take such necessary measures as he considered proper to prevent a surprise attack upon the province by the United States. A second expedition from St. Louis to establish trade relations with Santa Fe was organized in 1812. The leaders of the party of twelve were Robert McKnight, James Baird and Robert Chambers. When they arrived in Santa Fe they were arrested by Governor Manrrique and sent to Chihuahua, where they were held until the end of the Spanish period, when they were allowed to return to the United States. It was probably these men who were referred to in the letter of José Manrrique to Alcalde Garcia de la Mora of Rio Arriba when he ordered that officer on July 20, 1812, to send the foreigners, who had arrived there July 19, to Santa Fe. Four Frenchmen who had come into New Mexico from Louisiana were sent by Governor Maynez to Chihuahua, November 20, 1814.

August Chouteau and Julius De Mun, merchants of St. Louis, organized a party in the fall of 1815 for the purpose of trading with the Indians on the Upper Arkansas. The outfit and the time of the men belonging to a trader named Philibert was purchased. He had left his men on the Upper Arkansas near the Huerfano Creek. When Chouteau and De Mun arrived there on December 8, 1815, the Indians told them that Philibert's men had gone to the Spanish settlements. De Mun was sent after them, finding the men at Taos. He continued his journey to Santa Fe, where he asked for permission to trap on the headwaters of the Rio Grande, where he had seen many beavers. De Mun returned to the camp on the Huerfano and on February 27, 1816, set out for St. Louis to get supplies for the party. On his return he met Chouteau at the mouth of the Kansas River in the latter part of July with the winter's catch. Having sent the furs to St. Louis, Chouteau and De Mun with a party of forty-five men returned to the Upper Arkansas. De Mun again went to Santa Fe to gain permission to hunt in Spanish territory. Instead of gaining this right, he and all his men were ordered to get out of the country belonging to Spain. The trading party then turned north trapping during the fall and winter of 1816 and 1817 along the headwaters of the Arkansas. De Mun again visited Taos in the spring of 1817, but was escorted out of the country by a command of 200 men, who were ordered to see that the traders were well on their way to St. Louis before leaving them. Late in the spring of 1817 De Mun planned to depart with the furs for St. Louis and Chouteau to continue hunting on the Upper Arkansas and the Platte, but on May 24 a company of troops from Santa Fe appeared and took the whole party to that place. All the furs and the property were confiscated and the traders were held in prison for forty-eight days. Finally they were tried and sentenced to leave the country. On January 18, 1816, Governor Maynez reported the arrival at Taos of nine Frenchmen. These were doubtless Philibert's men, whom De Mun went after on his first trip to Taos. The only other reference to an American trader entering Santa Fe before the establishment of Independence relates to an Indian trader named David Merriwether, who was captured during a contest between the Pawnee and a Spanish force in 1819. One of the last reports made on the frontier conditions was that of Manuel Rivera, who returned to San Miguel del Bado on October 8, 1819. He had made a journey among the Comanche and had heard a rumor from a Comanche chief that an Anglo-American invading party was along the frontier.

A second official exploration of the Arkansas and the Red River Valley was made in the summer of 1820 less than a year before the final ratification of the treaty fixing the western boundary of Louisiana and the Independence of Mexico. The area ordered explored was the same that Pike had been ordered to reconnoiter fifteen years earlier. Major Stephn H. Long, the commander of the party, and twenty men left Council Bluffs on the Missouri River, June 6, 1820, proceeded up the Platte River, crossed from the North Platte to the South Platte, reaching the site of the present City of Denver on July 5. A week later the party was camped near Colorado Springs. One of the members named James was the first white man to climb Pike's Peak, and Major Long named the mountain after James, but the earlier name became the accepted one. After moving down the Arkansas into the region now the southeastern part of Colorado the expedition was divided into two groups: the one under Captain Bell descended the Arkansas; the other commanded by Major Long intended to go down the Red River Valley. Bell's party arrived at Fort Smith on September 9. Major Long left the Arkansas on July 24 near the mouth of Purgatory Creek, crossed to the Cimarron and continuing southward came to the Canadian which he erroneously believed to be the Red River. The party explored the Canadian Valley and arrived at Ft. Smith on September 13, four days after Captain Bell and his companions.

The internal affairs of New Mexico prior to 1821 were not affected to any great degree by the revolutionary developments which took place during this period in Spain and Mexico, nor by the western movement of the population of the United States. The commandant general of the *Provincias Internas* continued to be the source of orders for the governor of New Mexico. The office of commandant general was held by the following men during these years: Nemesio Salcedo, 1802-1813; Bernardo Bonavia, 1813-1818; and Alexo Garcia Condé, 1818-1821. The last governor of New Mexico appointed by the Spanish king was Joaquin del Real Alencaster, who took control of the government of New Mexico on March 23, 1805, and appears to have been removed from office early in June of 1808 by Commandant General Salcedo. Some eight years later, January 15, 1816, Commandant General Bonavia transmitted to Maynez an opinion of the minister appointed by the king to consider the case of Lieut-Col. Real Alencaster. On August 18, 1820, Ferdinand VII issued an order acquitting Real Alencaster of charges preferred against him by the former Commandant General Salcedo. José Manrrique was ordered to take control of the government of New Mexico by Salcedo January 28, 1808. However, Governor Alencaster did not see fit to surrender the office to him, and on June 6, upon his departure from the province, he delivered control of the government to Alberto Maynez. It appears that Manrrique had been imprisoned by the order of Alencaster for on August 11 he was liberated. On the following day Salcedo ordered Maynez to complete the organizing of certain volunteer cavalry companies and then turn the government over to Manrrique, which he did on September 26. Manrrique ruled as acting governor until 1814, when he was succeeded by Alberto Maynez, a military officer of the *Provincias Internas*. Pedro Maria de Allande, who had been in New Mexico in 1809 in command of a military detachment of the *Provincias Internas*, succeeded Maynez as acting governor in 1816. Facundo Melgares also military officer of the northern provinces and a son-in-law of Alberto

Maynez, controlling from 1818 to 1822, was the last of the long line of Spanish governors of New Mexico. Melgares' administration continued after the province had become independent of Spain. The officers in New Mexico took the oath to the independent government of Mexico on September 11, 1821, and on October 5, of that year the provisional government of Mexico decreed that existing governmental authorities should continue in control until further notice.

The only representative sent to Spain by New Mexico was Pedro Bautista Pino. The council of regency established by the Cortes issued a decree February 14, 1810, providing for the election of American deputies to the *Cortes*. Pino was chosen to represent New Mexico by a committee on August 11, 1810, who had been called together by Governor José Manrrique. This committee consisted of José Pino, Antonio Ortiz, Diego Montoya, José García de Mora, José Miguel Tafoya, José Antonio Chavez, Manuel García, Antonio Vaca, Cleto Miera y Pacheco, and Tomás Ortiz. Pino left New Mexico October 14, 1811, accompanied by his eleven-year-old grandson, Juan Pino; Salvador Chavez and Bartolomé Fernandez. Pino made a report on the conditions and the needs of New Mexico, called *Exposicíon*, which was printed at Cádiz in November, 1812. In this work he emphasized the need of greater military protection on the northern frontier in order to protect New Mexico from an invasion by the Anglo-Americans, and advised that five new presidios be established for this purpose. He asked that an *audiencia* be established in Chihuahua in order that important legal matters might be more easily settled than by reference to the *Audiencia* of Guadalajara, also that New Mexico be made a separate bishopric and that a college be established in the province. On October 20, 1820, Governor Melgares issued a circular to the *alcaldes* calling a meeting of representatives from each district for the purpose of finding means to send Pino to the restored *Cortes*. The meeting was held on November 1 and the districts were assessed to raise the money. Pino went as far as Vera Cruz, but due to financial difficulties never sailed for Spain.

Representative local government was established in New Mexico in the summer of 1814 under the Constitution of 1812, but the older organization was restored when Ferdinand VII set aside that instrument. The constitution provided for the election of electors in parishes, districts and the province, who should choose the officials. It also provided for the election of a representative to the general *Cortes* in Spain. The government of settlements was in the hands of a town council called an *ayuntamiento* and an *alcalde*, who were chosen by the electors. The certificate of election as parochial elector of San Miguel del Bado was issued to Gregorio Vigil on January 16, 1814. A document was compiled March 14 which recorded the election of parish, district and provincial electors as well as of the deputies to the provincial *junta*, or council. Commandant General Bonavia, September 28, ordered that a census should be taken in all places where constitutional *ayuntamientos* had been established. Pedro *Quiñones* reported, January 25, 1815, the formation of the *ayuntamiento* at El Paso del Norte of which as lieutenant governor he was president. A short time later, March 13, Quiñones gave notice of the dismissal of the *ayuntamiento* and the constitutional *alcalde* of El Paso, in conformity to the order of Ferdinand VII issued July 30, 1814.

When the Constitution of 1812 was restored in 1820 the system of local government through elected representatives again came into use in New Mexico. Commandant General García Condé, July 5, 1820, issued instructions concerning the manner of holding elections. The *ayuntamiento* of Santa Cruz was elected on September 5. The election of the parochial electors of San Juan, who were to attend the council of electors of the district, were chosen on December 3. Governor Melgares, November 15, sent to Commandant General Condé the results of the elections for provincial and national deputies. Ignacio Gallegos, January 7, 1821, was chosen elector for the Taos district. The elections for members of the *ayuntamiento* and *alcalde* of Abiquiu and the minutes of the transactions at the meetings of the *ayuntamiento* were sent to Governor Melgares by Josef Xaramillo on February 11, 1821. This local government was continued in force after the establishment of the independent government of Mexico.

The Spanish population of New Mexico increased very slightly in this period. The census compiled by Governor Alencaster November 20, 1805, gave the Spanish population as 26,835 and the Indian as 8,172 making a total of 34,997. In 1821 the Custodio, Jose Pedro Rubí, stated that there were 9,000 Indians and 34,000 Spaniards in New Mexico. The Spanish population of some of the leading places at these two dates was as follows: Santa Fe, 1805, 2,963, 1821, 6,038; La Cañada de Santa Cruz, 1805, 2,188, 1821, 2,633; Albuquerque, 1805, 4,294, 1821, 2,564; Taos, 1805, 1,337, 1821, 1,252; El Paso, 1805, 6,209; Isleta, 1805, 378, 1821, 2,324. The census figures are not accurate, but give some idea of the number of people living in the province.

Close watch was kept on the conduct of the people in order to prevent a rebellion among the Pueblo Indians as well as the development of revolutionary ideas among the Spanish. Effort was also made to keep Anglo-Americans from secretly coming into the province. Alencaster stated November 20, 1805, that the inhabitants were unprogressive and unruly, that there was general contempt for government, that the officials were generally ignorant, and that the people had been uncontrolled since the days of Governor Anza, that is since 1789. Reyes Vigil, July 28, 1805, a resident of San Miguel del Bado, was tried for rebellion. Investigations were carried on between December 6 and 24 relative to unlicensed gatherings which had been held at Pecos and La Cañada de Santa Cruz. Inhabitants of San Josef and San Miguel del Bado were on trial for sedition in September, 1806. On June 20, 1816, the people of Jemez took a formal oath in which they stated that they had not encouraged insurrection. It was also necessary to exercise control over the morals of the people. Commandant General Bonavia, February 1, 1817, issued an order calling upon the regular and secular clergy to suppress indecent dances.

The military organization of New Mexico was increased in the fall of 1808 when three volunteer cavalry companies were created by acting Governor Maynez under instructions from Commandant General Salcedo. These companies were established, one in each of the three principal settlements of the province, namely, Santa Fe, Albuquerque and Santa Cruz. Records of service and muster rolls were regularly sent to the commandant general at Chihuahua, from the time of the creation of these companies until the end of the Spanish period. Communications for military purposes were improved by the establishment of a monthly post between Santa Fe and El Paso, which was inaugurated September 18, 1815.

Important changes in the church were decreed by the *Cortes* of Spain in 1813. Upon the recommendation of Pedro Bautista Pino that body ordered, January 26, the establishment of a bishopric in the province of New Mexico. Ferdinand VII on January 27, 1815, called for a report on New Mexico in order to determine the advisability of establishing a bishopric at Santa Fe. However, the office was not created until 1852. The secularization of the missions was decreed by the Cortes September 13, 1813, but this order was not carried out. Commandant General García Condé, April 24, 1821, instructed the governor of New Mexico, Facundo Melgares, to publish the decree of the *Cortes* which provided for the secularization of the missions. When missions were secularized they were changed from missions to parishes and the control was taken from the religious order and placed in the hands of the bishop of the region.

Taxation increased in the province due to contributions demanded in the early part of the period for the Peninsular war and in the later part for opposing the revolution for independence in Mexico. The proclamation of the royal tribunal of the *Consulado* of Guadalajara calling for contributions for the Peninsular war was sent to Governor Manrrique by Salcedo on February 10, 1809. Missions and civil settlements were asked to supply funds. On March 13 Friar Joseph de Vera made a pledge for the fund in the name of the mission of Taos, on April 28 the *alcalde*, Cleto Miera y Pacheco, reported on the war contribution from the jurisdiction of San Carlos de Alameda, and Ignacio Vergara, May 27, sent in his report on the war contribution from the Jemez district. Returns were made on contributions and patriotic loans for opposing the insurrection in Mexico on July 27, 1815. Governor Maynez, September 18, wrote to Commandant General Bonavia stating that it was very difficult to raise funds for opposing the revolution on account of the lack of patriotism in the province and the poverty of the country. The support of an increased military establishment, also required extra taxes. On September 11, 1818, the governor issued a proclamation making assessments upon the districts for the support of the soldiers.

Trade with the Indians, the exportation of hides, wool and wine, and the importation of foreign goods by way of Chihuahua were the essential features of New Mexico commerce during the last days of Spanish rule. According to a report of the *consulado* of Vera Cruz in 1804 the annual importations into New Mexico amounted to $112,000, which were divided into three classes: European goods, $61,000; Asiatic, $7,000; and American, $44,000. The exports totalled only $60,000, which left a large balance of trade against New Mexico. On June 17, 1805, a council was held at Santa Fe to consider means of developing New Mexico. The members of this council were: Miguel Quintana, José Rafael Saracino, Pedro Bautista Pino, Joseph Mariano de la Peña, Antonio José Ortiz, Juan Rafael Ortiz, Miguel Romero, Francisco Perez Serrano, José Pino and Santiago Abreu. Governor Alencaster recommended, October 2, 1805, that a fair be held in the month of September of each year at El Paso and that skilled workmen be sent to New Mexico to develop industrial life. It seems that the annual fair which was held at Chihuahua City during the latter part of the eighteenth century had gone out

TORREON, OR FORT AT MANZANO

of existence, for on December 18, 1805, the viceroy ordered that an annual fair should be held at San Bartolomé near Chihuahua City and that all goods exchanged should be free from the sales tax, called the *alcavala*. On March 5, 1806, Salcedo ordered the governor of New Mexico to appoint the day of departure for the annual *cordón,* which should reach San Bartolomé in time for the annual fair lasting from December 18 to 23. In order to develop industry in New Mexico the government contracted, September 3, 1805, with Ignacio and Juan Bazan to teach weaving to New Mexicans. It seems that they continued in the employ of the government at Santa Fe until the summer of 1809. Governor Manrrique wrote to Salcedo on August 31 concerning the pay of these men and stated that their services were no longer needed.

In addition to the Chihuahua trade there were expeditions to Sonora and to the Ute country. A party set out from Cebolleta on November 19, 1809, for the purpose of trading goods in Sonora. A company consisting of seven men led by Mauricio Arze and Lagos García left Abiquiu, March 16, 1813, to carry on trade with the Ute Indians in the vicinity of the lakes of Utah. They were not very successful, obtaining only 109 skins due to the hostility of the Indians, who desired to trade Indian slaves, which was contrary to the rules of the Spanish government. After trading along the Colorado Valley in the vicinity of the Sevier River they returned to Abiquiu on July 12.

The first important mining development in New Mexico began in 1804. Francisco Manuel Elguea, a wealthy merchant of Chihuahua, obtained a claim from the Spanish government, known as the Santa Rita del Cobre Grant. He bought out the interests of Col. José Manuel Carrasco and contracted with the government to furnish copper for coinage. Pike stated in 1807 that the mine produced 20,000 mule loads of metal annually. After the death of Elguea the mine was operated by Juan Oniz under contract with the former owner's heirs.

The Indian relations of the period consisted of managing the Pueblo Indians, keeping peace with the Ute, Comanche and other tribes to the north in order to strengthen the Spanish claim to that area, and making war on the Navaho and Apache. Felipe Sandoval was appointed *protector partidario* of all the New Mexico Indians, May 31, 1810. He was succeeded by Ignacio Vergara on June 21, 1817. It was the duty of this officer to protect the interests of the Pueblo Indians. The Indians of Cochití, October 20, 1815, complained that the officers which they had elected in their Pueblo had been removed. Commandant General Bonavia ordered the restoration to office of the Indian officials. Friar García del Valle, January 3, 1819, made known the great want that existed among the Zuñi Indians. Late in the same year contributions for the assistance of the Zuñi were made by Albuquerque and Picurís. Friar Antonio Cacho, who was in charge of the Zuñi mission, on July 8, 1821, left Zuñi and returned to Santa Fe on account of the danger of a Navaho attack. During the period several expeditions were sent among the Comanche and other tribes of the plains, usually commanded by Corporal Juan Lucero, to strengthen the Spanish alliance and prevent them from joining the Anglo-Americans. Peace was established with the Navaho in the early part of 1805, but signs of trouble developed before the end of that year. The *alcalde* at Laguna, José Manuel Aragon, October 11, reported to Governor Alencaster that the Navaho were making depredations at Cebolleta and advised the abandoning of the place. In 1809 and in 1813 the Navaho carried on campaigns against the Faraon and Mescalero Apache. It was not until 1818 that serious trouble developed between the Navaho and the Spanish. Manuel Rubí de Salis, the *alcalde* of Albuquerque, reported September 5, that the Navaho had made attacks upon the settlements in the vicinity of Albuquerque and that reprisals had been taken. In the fall of 1818 troops were sent to Jemez for the purpose of carrying out a campaign against the Navaho. On February 1, 1819, Governor Melgares ordered the *alcaldes* of Alameda, Albuquerque and Belen to arm their people against the Navaho, who were said to be marching upon the settlements of the Rio Abajo, by which was meant the country between Bernalillo and El Paso. Troops were again gathered at Jemez in the summer of 1821 to make a campaign against the Navaho. The plans for this campaign were submitted to the *ayuntamientos* of Santa Fe, San Miguel del Bado, Laguna, Corrales, Albuquerque, Santa Cruz and Pajarito and all agreed to render assistance.

Campaigns against the Apache were not so numerous in this period as in the last half of the eighteenth century. Governor Alencaster stated September 1, 1805, that a campaign was soon to begin against the Apache. Troops left the presidio in Santa Fe September 1, 1806, under Lieut. Ignacio Sotelo. In the latter part of the following year Lieutenant Sotelo conducted a campaign against the Apache, who had attacked Zuñi on October 13, 1807. After negotiations extending from September 23, 1809, to June 30, 1810, a joint expedition of Comanche and Spanish soldiers made an attack upon the Mescalero and Faraon Apache in the Sierra del Sacramento. The last reference to Apache wars in the Spanish period was made August 7, 1815, by Rafael Baca, who at that time reported an attack upon the Zuñi Pueblo by a combined force of Apache and Navaho.

BERNALILLO COUNTY DOCUMENTS IN "SANTA FE ARCHIVES"

The list of documents which follows is taken from R. E. Twitchell, *Spanish Archives of New Mexico.* The documents given in volume one of this work are deposited in Surveyor General's office in Santa Fe and those in volume two are in the State Museum of New Mexico, also in Santa Fe.

This list contains only those documents which refer to places within the limits of the present Bernalillo County and serves as an illustration of the documentary material contained in the "Santa Fe Archives." The records are similar to those kept by present day county officers.

The documents are arranged by places. Under each place they are put in chronological order. In tabulated form are given the date; the reference to Twitchell, *Spanish Archives of New Mexico*—to volume one or volume two, as the case may be; the archive number, and the number of folios in each document.

ALAMEDA.

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Francisco Montes Vigil. Grant. S. G. No. 91	1710	I	1029	--
Francisco Montes y Vigil to Juan Gonzales. Santa Fe, July 18, 1712 Conveyance of a tract of land called Alameda granted to the grantor by the Marqués de la Peñuela in 1710. Before Alonzo Rael de Aguilar, Alcalde.	1712	I	302	--
Joseph Gonzales, of Alameda Inventory of his property. Before Juan Gonzales Bas, Alcalde.	1738	I	326	--
People of Alameda Relative to Joseph Montaño having come upon their lands. January 20, 1750. Before Miguel Lucero, Alcalde.	1750	I	29	--
Antonio Gonzales of Alameda In the matter of the settlement of his estate.	1764?	I	990	--
Eusebio Chaves, June 3, July 12, 1765 Criminal proceedings against him, a resident of Alameda, for assault upon Andrés Martin.	1765	II	590	25
Pedro Padilla vs. Julian Rael, Resident of Alameda. October 31, 1765, to September 18, 1766 Petition and proceedings in relation to a mule which was ordered returned to Padilla.	1765	II	607	4
Heirs of the Alameda Tract vs. Pedro Barela Opposition to sale of lands. Before Francisco Trebol Navarro, Acting Governor.	1778	I	51	--
José Duran y Chaves. San Carlos de Alameda Inventory and partition of estate. Before Nerio Antonio Montoya, Alcalde.	1783	I	250	--
Census, Pueblo of Alameda, Jurisdiction of Albuquerque	1790	II	1110d	1
Clemente Gutierres to Viviana Martin. San Isidro de Los Corrales. 1784-1793 Lands in Alameda. Nerio Montoya, Alcalde.	1793	I	599	--
Fray Joseph Medrano to Maria Dolores and Mariano, two children he had raised Land in Alameda. Antonio de Armenta, Alcalde.	1794?	I	465	--
Juana Gertrudis Castela vs. Miguel Baca and Juan Antonio Baca Question of lands at Alameda. Nerio Antonio Jose Ortiz, Alcalde; Antonio de Armenta, Alcalde.	1795	I	465	--

---

1. S. G. No. 91—The United States Surveyor General for New Mexico gave numbers to all land claims.

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Josef Trujillo, Alameda. Santa Fe, May 16-November 2, 1805 Trial for seducing Maria de las Nieves Miera y Pacheco.	1805	II	1829	7
Julian Bejil to Juan Cristóbal García, Alameda, April 20, 1806 Conveyance of house and lands. Before Cleto Miera y Pacheco, Alcalde.	1806	I	377	--
Militia, New Mexico. Santa Cruz, Alameda, etc. June 18-July 19, 1806 Muster rolls of the militia, equipment, etc.	1806	II	1995	15
Miguel Mirabal, of Las Huertas Petition relating to inheritance of land under the will of his great-grandfather. Land in Alameda.	1808	I	605	--
San Carlos de Alameda, Pueblo and Jurisdiction. Santa Fe, April 29, 1809 Report of war contributions by Cleto Miera Pacheco, Alcalde.	1809	II	2226	1
María Viviana Martín. Alameda Petition asking that her son-in-law, Vicente Montaño, be ordered to return to her the title deeds to lands in Alameda. Josef Mariano de la Peña, Alcalde.	1812	I	609	--
Melgares. Santa Fe, February 17, 1821 To the Alcalde of Alameda concerning the complaint of José Carlos, an Indian, that the former Alcalde of Alameda, Gutierrez, took a mule from him.	1821	II	2964	1
Alameda Tract Report of the measurement of the same by Perea to Bartolomé Baca, political chief.	1825	I	1295	--
José Tafoya vs. José Perea, Alameda Letter of Mariano Sanchez Vergara, Alcalde of Alameda, in relation to a suit between the said parties.	1827	I	1011	--
Gertrudis Tafoya vs. Heirs of Santiago García, Alameda In the matter of lands inherited from her maternal grandmother, Prudencia Gonzales. Cleto Miera y Pacheco, Alcalde.	1827	I	1012	--
Alameda Question of boundaries between the Garcías and the Tafoyas. Settled by a suit of conciliation. José Alejandro Santistievan, Alcalde.	1827	I	1119	--

ALBURQUERQUE.

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Inhabitants of Alburquerque vs. Antonio de Silba Requiring him to give up a land grant. Before Juan Gonzales Baz, Alcalde.	n. d.	I	53	--
Francisco Xavier de Miranda, Alburquerque Asking that Juan Montaño be ordered to give him a deed.	n. d.	I	601	--
Cristóbal Jaramillo, ensign. Alburquerque Petition that possession be given him of a house and lands that formerly belonged to Luisa Trujillo. Possession given Feb. 20, 1706.	1706	I	1136	--
Antonio Barela. Petition on August 10, 1707 To Captain Martín Hurtado, alcalde mayor of Alburquerque, asking that possession be given	1707	I	1136	--

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
him of lands that were given to him at the time that the said town was settled. Possession was given by the Alcalde.				
Cristóbal Barela. Resident of Bernalillo Grant at the town of Alburquerque of a tract of land granted to him by Captain Martin Hurtado, alcalde mayor, bounded on the west by the Rio del Norte, south by lands of Lorenzo Carabajal, and north by lands of Antonio Gutierrez.	n. d.	I	1136	--
Alburquerque, Duke of, Viceroy, July 30, 1706, Mexico Copy of an order of the Viceroy relative to New Mexico. The Governor was ordered to make no more settlements and to call the one that he had made and named the Villa of Alburquerque, San Felipe in honor of his Majesty.	1706	II	124	--
Francisco Cuervo y Valdez. Santa Fe, December 29, 1706 Order of the Governor relative to the dangers of the journey between Alburquerque and the old pueblo of Isleta.	1706	II	129	--
Lorenzo de Carabajal. Alburquerque Petition for title to lands granted in 1706. Possession given by Martin Hurtado.	1707	I	156	--
Fernando Durán y Chaves and Baltazar Romero Petition asking that soldiers be stationed at Alburquerque.	1708	I	1205	--
Juan de Uribarri. Grant Land in the jurisdiction of Alburquerque. Possession not given.	1709	I	1017	--
Settlers of Alburquerque. Oct. 15, 1712 Petition asking for the return of the detachment of soldiers that had been withdrawn by Marqués de la Peñuela.	1712	II	181	1
Baltazar Romero to Alejo Gutierrez, Santa Fe, Mar. 11, 1715 Conveyance of house and lands in Alburquerque. Before Diego Arias de Quiros, Alcalde.	1715	I	307	--
Alejo Gutíerres and Bentura de la Candelaria Alburquerque, Aug. 15, 1715 Division of property. Before Luiz García, Alcalde.	1715	I	306	--
Baltazar Romero, Alburquerque, to Nicholas de Torres House, lot and lands. Diego Arias de Quiros, Alcalde.	1715	I	935	--
Juana de Zosa Canela to Juan Ballejo. Santa Fe. Land in Alburquerque. Juan Garcia de las Rivas, Alcalde.	1716	I	[illegible]030	--
Lucía Hurtado. March 8, 1716 Proceedings in a suit between certain settlers of the jurisdiction of Alburquerque—the sons of Lucia Hurtado and Captain Luis Garcia.	1716	II	269	2
Antonio Gutiérrez Grant. Land near Alburquerque. Approved November 5, 1716, by Félix Martinez, Governor and Captain-General.	1716	I	315	--

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Juan Griego and Juliana Sais, his wife, and Francisco Sais to Diego Arias de Quiras, Santa Fe House and land near Alburquerque (Deed is printed, 3 pp.)	1718	I	716	--
Pedro Asencion Lopez, et al. Proceedings, writs, testimony, etc., in a criminal prosecution against him and Joseph Gonzales and Pedro Lopez, citizens of the Villa of Alburquerque, for having wounded and insulted Nicolás de Chaves.	1719?	II	299	27
Antonio Martín Land at Alburquerque. Possession not given. Juan Domingo de Bustamento, Governor.	1721	I	507	--
Pedro Lucero, Cristóbal García and Ventura de la Candelaria Question in regard to the sale of lands at Alburquerque. Before Alonzo Rael de Aguilar, Lieutenant General, Alburquerque, April 3, 1722.	1722	I	172	--
Juan Gonzales Bas vs. Jerónimo de Ortega Question of lands above Alburquerque. Before Gervasio Cruzat y Gongora, Governor.	1731	I	316	--
Juana de Analla to José Montaño, Alburquerque Land. Juan Gonzales Bas, Alcalde.	1731	I	516	--
Joseph Xaramillo to Barbara, Matilde and Catarina Viviana Ballejos. Alburquerque, 1732 Land. Juan Gonzales Bas, Alcalde.	1732	I	1156	--
Cristóbal García. Alburquerque, August 19 to November 12, 1732 Petition praying for the right of carrying an acequia through the lands of Joseph Montaño. Settled.	1732	II	372	10
Cruzat y Gongora. October 12, 1732 Giving information that the escort to accompany such inhabitants as intended to leave New Mexico would be ready at Alburquerque on October 31, 1732.	1732	II	377	2
Francisco de Jesus de Espexo. Alburquerque Will and the proceedings in the settlement of his estate, 1733. Joseph Perez Mangos, Alcalde.	1733	I	1219	--
Cristóbal García, January 7-February 7, 1733 Complaint against him by Ysabel Jorge, Phelipe Gallegos and Antonio Gurule, citizens of Alburquerque, on account of his having opened an acequia and conducted it through their lands. Compromised.	1733	II	379	24
Francisco de Silva, Alburquerque, vs. Nicolas de Çhaves Concerning his wife's dower. Juan Gonzales Bas, Alcalde.	1733	I	841	--
Fray Joseph Antonio Guerrero, April 3-May 11, 1733 Complaint to the Governor concerning the disrespectful conduct of two men in the church at Alburquerque. Referred to the superior government.	1733	II	382	16
Joseph Xaramillo to Leogardo Gallegos, Alburquerque Lands. Geronimo Xaramillo, Alcalde.	1734	I	1040	--

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Juan Páez Hurtado, Alburquerque, January 29, 1734 Proceedings of a council of war presided over by Hurtado at Alburquerque.	1734	II	396	2
Juana de Sedillo, wife of Francisco García, to Antonio de Sedillo. Alburquerque, January 9, 1734 Conveyance of land. Before Jerónimo Jaramillo, Alcalde.	1734	I	178	--
Diego Padilla to Diego Borrego. Alburquerque, January 7, 1734 Donation of land. Before Juan Gonzales Bas.	1734	I	178	--
Antonio Sedillo, son of Joaquín Sedillo, to Diego Borrego. Alburquerque, January 11, 1734	1734	I	178	--
Indians. Alburquerque, April 7-May 10, 1734 Proceedings in the case of a robbery committed by Indians.	1734	II	398	5
Leonor Domínguez, widow of Cristoval Xaramillo, to Nicholas Duran. Alburquerque, Dec. 11, 1734 Conveyance of land. Before Juan Gonzales Bas.	1734	I	238	--
Pedro Luzero to Nicolás Durán. Alburquerque, August 10, 1735 Conveyance of land. Before Juan Gonzales Bas.	1735	I	238	--
Jose Sanches In the matter of the settlement of the estate of his deceased father, Jacinto Sanches. Alburquerque, 1735. Juan Gonzales Bas, Alcalde.	1735	I	843	--
Manuela Lusero to Lázaro García. Alburquerque, April 23, 1735 Conveyance of house and land. Before Geronimo Xaramillo, Alcalde.	1735	I	323	--
Cristóval Xaramillo to Matías Romero. Alburquerque, 1736 Land. Geronimo Xaramillo, Alcalde.	1736	I	751	--
Salvador Martínez. Alburquerque, 1736 Petition asking that property inherited by his wife be delivered to her. Gervasio Cruzat y Gongora, Governor.	1736	I	1221	--
Diego Padilla. Alburquerque, 1736 Will, inventory and partition of his estate. Enrique de Olavide y Michelena, Governor.	1736	I	685	--
Pedro Barela, et al. January 30, 1736 Petition of Pedro Barela, Joseph Sanches, Antonio Lucero, Juan García, and Jacinto Barela, of the jurisdiction of Alburquerque, asking permission to remain with their herds. Granted.	1736	II	408	2
Diego and Cristóbal García Proceedings in the criminal prosecution of the above residents of Alburquerque for having assaulted Juan Montaño. June 9-July 24, 1737. Defendants acquitted.	1737	II	416	--
Inhabitants of Alburquerque, September 3, 1737 Petition to the Governor praying for the revocation of an edict of August 24, 1737, prohibiting the sale of wool, grain or cattle, and the export of the same.	1737	II	421	2

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Marcial García of Alburquerque to Melchor Rodriguez. Santa Fe, 1738 Land in Santa Fe. Antonio Montoya, Alcalde.	1738	I	757	--
Town of Tome. Grant Petition presented to Juan Gonzales Bas, Chief Alcalde of Alburquerque, by residents of Alburquerque asking that the abandoned grant to Thomé Dominguez be granted to them. The Governor made the grant and possession was given July 30, 1739, by Juan Gonzales Bas.	1739	I	956	--
Inhabitants of Alburquerque, May 22, 1744 Permission asked by petition to sell their wool on account of danger of destruction of the same by moths.	1744	II	454	2
Gregorio Gutierrez of Alburquerque, vs. Maria Silva, 1745 Petition for ejectment, concerning lands in Fuenclara. Possession by Joseph Baca, Alcalde.	1745	I	338	--
Joseph Baca, Alcalde Mayor of the Villa of Alburquerque, March 3, 1745 Order relative to Ysidro Sanchez whom he claimed was creating disturbances, etc.	1745	II	463	1
Inhabitants of Alburquerque, June 16, 1745 Petition asking that they be allowed to sell their wool. Granted.	1745	II	465	2
Fr. Gutierrez, Lieutenant of the Alcalde, October 5-16, 1745 Proceedings relating to the death of an Indian servant of Pedro García, resident of Alburquerque. Gutiérrez was deprived of office and sentenced to pay the costs.	1745	II	466	4
Manuel Baca. October 5, 1744, to January 29, 1746 Criminal proceeding against him, resident of the post of Pajarito of the jurisdiction of Alburquerque, for violation of the orders of the supreme government. He was pardoned on account of poor health.	1746	II	467	11
Luís Garzía, of Alburquerque Petition that the lands given to him and his brothers be given to him alone. Granted by Joachín Codallos y Rabal, Governor.	1746	I	340	--
Rosalia García de Noriega. Alburquerque, Feb. 10, 1746 Power of attorney to Salvador Martínez, her husband, to represent her in recovery from her father's estate, the inheritance due her from her mother, Josefa Valverde.	1746	II	473	2
Ramon García Jurado and Salvador Martínez. Alburquerque, May 21, 1746 Petition in the matter of the partition of the estate of Josefa Valverde. Before Joachin Cadallos y Rabal, Governor, Agreement was made as to the division of the ranchos; San Francisco de Sandia, San Joseph de los Corrales, and San Antonio.	1746	I	414	--

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Salvador Martínez. Feb. 13-June 6, 1748 Copy of a petition presented to the Viceroy asking for the command of a detachment of ten soldiers permanently stationed at Alburquerque. The petition was granted.	1748	II	484	4
Salvador Martínez. June 6, 1748 Copy of petition relative to the detachment of soldiers at Alburquerque.	1748	II	486	2
Fernando Padilla. Alburquerque, July 7-Nov. 21, 1749 Complaint against his wife's sister for having removed the goods and children of his demented wife to her house. Judgment required the return of the goods to Padilla.	1749	II	492	60
Baltazar Baca. Aug. 2-Sept. 7, 1752 Criminal autos relating to the disobediences of an order of the Governor and of the alcalde mayor of the Villa of Alburquerque. He was accused of employing Indians as shepherds contrary to decrees. Judgment; costs, fees and fines.	1752	II	523	19
Nuestra Señora de la Luz San Fernando y San Blas Grant on Rio Puerco to twelve families of Alburquerque, 1753-1759. Antonio Baca Alcalde.	1753	I	688	--
Marin del Valle. Santa Fe, Sept. 14, 1756 Bando relative to the people of Alburquerque neglecting the guarding of their stock.	1756	II	534	1
Joseph Gonzales. Aug. 11-18, 1763 Appeal from the judgment of the Alcalde of Alburquerque in relation to crop losses.	1763	II	573	2
Manuel Durán de Armijo. Alburquerque Will, inventory and partition of his estate, 1764. Before Baltazar Griego, Alcalde.	1764	I	246	--
Joseph Baca. Alburquerque Will, 1766. Juan Xtopbal Sanchez, Alcalde.	1766	I	1231	--
Antonio de Salazar. Alburquerque, 1768 In the matter of the settlement of his estate. Francisco Pablo and Cristobal de Salar, executors and heirs.	1768	I	872	--
Miguel Lucero, Alcalde Mayor of Alburquerque Will, 1768. Also inventory and partition proceedings. Juan Cristóbal Sanchez, Alcalde.	1768	I	454	--
Francisco Trebol Navarro. Jan. 28, 1768 Petition from some of the settlers of Alburquerque asking that he be appointed Alcalde and not War-captain.	1768	II	635	4
Vicente Armijo of Alburquerque and Maria Josefa Lopez of Santa Fe to Francisco Garcia of Santa Fe. April 18, 1769 Conveyance of land. Before Phelipe Tafoya, Alcalde.	1769	I	367	--
Joseph Antonio Sais. Alburquerque Will, 1770. Joseph Apodaca, Alcalde.	1770	I	880	--
Carnuel Tract Petition of persons of Alburquerque to settle upon the same, March 24, 1774. Denied. Report made by Francisco Trebol Navarro, Alcalde.	1774	I	46	--

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Jacobo Ugarte y Loyola. Chihuahua, 1789 Letter to the Governor of New Mexico relative to Indian depredations in the vicinity of Alburquerque, Bernalillo, and Abiquiu, Sept. 10 and Oct. 5, 1787.	1789	II	990	2
Census. Alburquerque jurisdiction, Oct. 22, 1790 By plazas and pueblos, giving names of heads of families, etc. Signed by Manuel de Areaga and Fray Bernal.	1790	II	1092b	18
Fernando de la Concha. Santa Fe, Feb. 18, 1793 Bando relative to the rebuilding of the church at Alburquerque.	1793	II	1226	1
Fernando de Chacón. Santa Fe, Nov. 15, 1794 To Commandante General Pedro de Nava reporting a case of justifiable homicide.	1794	II	1295a	--
Fernando de Chacón. Santa Fe, Aug. 30, 1800 Reporting appearance of Fray Isidro Cadelo in Alburquerque with a royal provision of the Real Audiencia of Guadalajara for his reinstatement.	1800	II	1503	--
Fernando de Chacón. Santa Fe, June 15, 1802 Communication to the Audiencia of Guadalajara relative to the giving to Juan Jose Sida of Alburquerque the charge of Isleta unjustly.	1802	II	1610	--
Antonio Estanislao Ruiz. Alburquerque, April 1, 1805 To Governor Real Alencaster transmitting the commission delivered to him by the surgeon Larranaga.	1805	II	1806	--
Josef Victoriano Pallares. Alburquerque, April 30-June 11, 1805 Trial for theft.	1805	II	1818	6
Arteaga. Alcalde, Alburquerque, May 22, 1805 To Governor Real Alencaster transmitting a list of persons who have not had smallpox.	1805	II	1832	1
Juan Cruz García. Alburquerque, Oct. 11-28, 1805 Trial for theft, adultery, etc.	1805	II	1904	4
Real Alencaster. Santa Fe, Nov. 26, 1806 To the Audiencia of Guadalajara transmitting process against Juan Cristóbal García for the killing of Antonio Josef Baca, both of Alburquerque. Trial conducted by the Alcalde as receptoria.	1806	II	2031	--
Alburquerque Militia. Sept. 17, 1808-Jan. 16, 1813 Enlistment papers.	1813	II	2159	--
Jose Manrrique. Santa Fe, June 30, 1809 To Commandant General Salcedo transmitting the letter and petition of Fray Ambrosio Guerra, priest of Alburquerque, praying the restoration of the Partido of Tomé to the Alburquerque mission.	1809	II	2236	1
Salcedo. Chihuahua, Aug. 12, 1809 To Governor Manrrique refusing the petition of Fray Ambrosio Guerra cited above.	1809	II	2245	--
José Antonio Chaves. Ranchos de Alburquerque, 1811 Objections to the opening of a road through his lands.	1811	I	1275	--

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Francisco Chaves vs. Mariano Pena. · Santa Fe, Oct. 10-Nov. 13, 1812 Appeal of Chaves against a decree of exile pronounced by Mariano de la Peña, second alcalde of Alburquerque.	1812	II	2463	7
Alburquerque Militia. Belem, June 11, 1813 Returns of arms and equipment.	1813	II	2496	1
Indian Fund. Alburquerque, June 30, 1814 Returns of contributions from the jurisdiction of Alburquerque on entertainment of the Navajos.	1814	II	2545	2
Alberto Maynez. Nov. 20, 1814 Reporting notices of Apaches in the Sierra de Abó, near Tome, Alburquerque, etc.	1814	II	2565	2
Ayuntamiento of Alburquerque, June 5-July 28 1814 Expense account.	1814	II	2569	2
Alburquerque Jurisdiction Census returns, 1814.	1814	II	2569	--
Militia. Alburquerque, Dec. 31, 1815 Service records. Captain Baca.	1815	II	2634	6
Francisco Armijo. Alburquerque, Mar. 25-April 8, 1816 Trial for cruelty to his wife.	1816	II	2657	15
Bonavia. Santa Fe, Oct. 26, 1816 To Governor Allande ordering that Miguel Antonio Chaves be considered as First Alferez of the Alburquerque Company.	1816	II	2679	2
Agustín Atrisco Jaramillo vs. Lorenzo de la Pena. Alburquerque, Mar. 15-April 5, 1819 Suit to recover on overcharge for a cow slaughtered the without owner's permission.	1819	II	2793	1
Miguel Apodaca vs. Sergeant Juna José Chaves. Alburquerque, July 9, 1819-Mar. 4, 1820 Suit brought to disprove Chaves' charges of shortage in a livestock contract.	1819	II	2838	31
Lucas Armijo. Alburquerque, Sept. 15, 1819 Letter to Governor Melgares.	1819	II	2845	1
Militia. Alburquerque, Nov. 1, 1819 Returns by Armijo and De la Peña.	1819	II	2856	5
Francisco Armijo. Alburquerque, Jan. 3, 1821 To Governor Melgares thanking him for pardoning and covering the mistakes of the writer's administration.	1821	II	2955	1
Antonio Ruiz. Plaza de la Constitucion, Alburquerque, June 9, 1821 To Governor Melgares concerning his election.	1821	II	2984	1
Ayuntamiento. Alburquerque, Aug. 26, 1821 To Governor Melgares reporting the receipt and publication of Pino's proclamation.	1821	II	3015	1
Andrea Ortega. Alburquerque Petition for lands. Referred to the Provincial Deputation. Bartolomé Baca, Jefe Político.	1825	I	671	--
José Domingo García et al. Petition for lands near Alburquerque. Before Manuel Armijo, Governor. Refused because covered by grant of lands to Los Griegos. Ambrosio Armijo, Alcalde.	1828	I	465	--

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Manuel Trujillo. Alburquerque, 1828 Petition to the Governor in regard to the return of certain papers by the Alcalde of Socorro.	1828	I	1154	--
Juan García. Alburquerque, Jan. 8, 1831 His application for a tract of land at Cubero was referred to the Constitutional Council of Laguna with instructions to report on the same.	1831	I	1291	--
Rafael Sena of Alburquerque vs. Francisco Baca, a Navajo Complaint that the Indian demanded a part of the crops raised on a piece of land bought by the plaintiff and others of Cebolleta, at Cubero. Referred to the Alcalde of Laguna.	1835	I	910	--
San José de Los Ranchos, Jurisdiction of Alburquerque Petition for a new public road. Report with exhibits by the Alcalde De la Peña.	n. d.	II	2505	4

ALAMEDA, ALBURQUERQUE, ETC.

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Luis I., King. June 22-Aug. 1, 1725 Publication of the notice of the death of the King, at Alburquerque and Laguna.	1725	II	336	--
Juan José Ramos Sedillo. Plaza de los Lentes, Isleta, Partido de Alburquerque, July 10-21, 1790 Trial on charge of attempt to murder Bartolo Gallego. Manuel de Arteaga, Alcalde Mayor, Partido of Alburquerque.	1790	II	1085	--
Fernando de la Concha. Santa Fe, Sept. 17, 1790 Publication of a bando of the Commandante General Jacobo Ugarte y Loyola, July 2, 1790, relative to the issue of passports for interior travel. Isleta, Alameda, Alburquerque are mentioned in the document.	1790	II	1091	--
Churches of New Mexico. April 21-Aug. 27, 1796 Inventories of the ornaments, furniture, etc., of the churches, convents, etc., of New Mexico.	1796	II	1360	--
Military Diaries. Santa Fe, July 6, 1800 Reporting Indian depredations and reprisals. Among the list of places mentioned is Alameda.	1800	II	1504	--
Salcedo. Chihuahua, June 8, 1804 Reply to letter of Governor Chacon relative to Navajo hostilities. Orders to the Alcalde Mayores, Alameda, etc.	1804	II	1735	--
Real Alencaster. Santa Fe, May 5, 1805 Circular letter to the Alcaldes of Alameda, Isleta, etc., calling for census and transmitting form.	1805	II	1822	--
Cristóbal Gutiérrez and Pedro Chaves. Belen, Padillas, Santa Fe. April 22-July 8, 1805 Trial for theft. Manuel de Arteaga, Alcalde.	1805	II	1815	--
Larranaga, etc., Surgeon, Santa Fe, May 24, 1805 Report of children vaccinated Alburquerque, etc., 1805.	1805	II	1833	--
Census. Santa Fe, May 19-29, 1805 Returns by pueblos, villas, missions, plazas, partidos, ranchos, etc., from the jurisdictions of Jemes, Laguna, Alburquerque, Alameda, Rio Arriba.	1805	II	1830	--

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Real Alencaster. Santa Fe, Jan. 26, 1806 To the curas of Santa Fe, Santa Cruz, and Alburquerque, ordering detailed reports of *patronatos laicos*, pursuant to royal cédula Dec. 26, 1804.	1806	II	1961	-- --
Real Alencaster. Santa Fe, July 19-26, 1806 Documents relatin gto the Jurisdiction of Alameda forming a part of the visita of Real Alencaster.	1806	II	2002	--
Real Alencaster. Santa Fe, August 24, 1806 Instructions to Teniente Ignacio Sotela for a campaign to begin August 30, in which are mentioned Alburquerque and Alameda.	1806	II	2005	--
Real Alencaster, Santa Fe, Nov. 20, 1807 To Commandant General Salcedo transmitting diary in which is mentioned the Alcalde of Alburquerque.	1807	II	2089	--
Alcaldes. Santa Fe, June, 1808 List including Alburquerque, Alameda and Pajarito.	1808	II	2130	--
Maynez. Santa Fe, June 11, 1808 Ordering 50 men to the Pecos for a campaign. A levy of 25 men on Alameda.	1808	II	2111	--
Maynez. Santa Fe, July 1, 1808 Circular letter to the Alcaldes of Alburquerque, Alameda communicating orders from the Commandant General.	1808	II	2133	--
Navajos. Santa Fe, May 25-July 9, 1808 Investigation of complaints of Spanish encroachments. Alcaldes of Alburquerque and Alameda are mentioned.	1808	II	2105	--
Diary of Events. Santa Fe, July 1-Sept. 13, 1808 Alcaldes of Isleta, Alburquerque and Alameda are mentioned.	1808	II	2134	--
Pedro Garabay. Mexico, Nov. 30, 1808 Announcnig the installation of the Junta Central Suprema of Spain. Publication in Alameda, Alburquerque, etc.	1808	II	2188	--
Salcedo. Chihuahua, Jan. 28, 1809 To Governor Manrique calling for copies of the nominations for officers of the three volunteer cavalry companies of Alburquerque, Santa Fe, and Santa Cruz.	1809	II	2199	--
Salcedo. Chihuahua, April 20, 1809 To Governor Manrrique ordering the Partido of Tomé temporarily detached from the mission of Alburquerque and grouped with that of Isleta and Belen.	1809	II	2223	--
Manrrique. Santa Fe, June 30, 1810 To Commandante General Salcedo reporting campaign with the Commanches against the Apaches in which is mentioned Alameda and Alburquerque.	1810	II	2331	--
Antonio Ruiz. Santa Fe, Oct. 18, 1810 List of children vaccinated in the Alburquerque Jurisdiction by plazas, Aug. 22-Oct. 9th.	1810	II	2368	--
Allande. Santa Fe, March 2, 1818 Circular to the Alcaldes of Alameda, Alburquerque, ordering vigilance against Yuta and Navajo attacks.	1818	II	2714	--

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Manuel Ruví de Celis, Alcalde, Alburquerque. Pajarito. Sept. 5, 1818 To Governor Melgares on Navajo depredations and reprisals.	1818	II	2742	--
José María de Arce. Oct. 1818 On hauling of grain for the Santa Fe Company especially from the Alburquerque Jurisdiction.	1818	II	2766	--
Juan de Dios Peña, Alcalde, Alburquerque, Pajarito, Nov. 18, 1818 Proclamation reiterating the previous orders for the removal of livestock from the frontiers in order to protect the same from the Navajos.	1818	II	2775	--
Melgares. Santa Fe, Feb. 1, 1819 Circular to the Alcaldes of Alameda, Alburquerque, etc., ordering vigorous resistance to the Navajos reported on the march for the Rio Abajo.	1819	II	2791	--
Navajo Campaign Contributions. Santa Fe, May 5-22, 1819 Returns of subscriptions and collections in the Alcaldias of Belen, Alburquerque, Alameda, Cochiti, Xemes, Laguna, Zuñi, Cañada, Abiquiu, Taos and Bado.	1819	II	2812	--
Alburquerque, Inhabitants of, Santa Fe, Nov. 14-23, 1819 Return of aid rendered to the Zuñi Indians.	1819	II	2858	--
Alburquerque Jurisdiction. Pajarito, Nov. 26, 1819 Return of aid rendered to the Zuñi Indians.	1819	II	2862	--
Melgares. Santa Fe, Aug. 19, 1821 Circular to the Constitutional Alcaldes of Alameda, Alburquerque, Isleta, Belem transmitting a proclamation addressed to the Ayuntamiento of Santa Fe, by Deputy Bautista Pino, embodying a plan for the opposing of the Navajos.	1821	II	3007	--

ATRISCO.

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Leonor Montaño and María Antonia de Chaves to Antonio de Chaves. Santa Fe, Sept. 9, 1729 Conveyance of a tract of land in Atrisco. Before Diego Arias de Quiros, Alcalde.	1729	I	175	--
Francisco Xavier de Miranda to Francisco Antonio Gonzales. Alburquerque, Mar. 25, 1735 Conveyance of a tract of land in Atrisco. Before Gerónimo Xaramillo, Alcalde.	1735	I	321	--
Grantees of the Nuestra Señora de La Luz y San Blas Tract vs. the Grantees of the Atrisco Tract. 1759 Question of boundary. Before Francisco Antonio Marin del Valle. Later proceedings were held in 1766.	1759	I	111	--
Quiteria Chaves. Alburquerque, 1764 Petition for the division of lands in Atrisco among his natural sons in the absence of legitimate heirs. Before Tomás Vélez Cachupín, Governor.	1764	I	196	--

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Town of Atrisco, 1768 Grant. Reported claim, Surveyor General of New Mexico, No. 145.	1768	I	694	--
Joseph and Juan Durán y Chaves. Atrisco, 1769 Confirmation of a sale of land made to Jacinto Sanchez in 1757. Confirmed to Felciana Sanchez, daughter of the said Jacinto, and wife of Joseph Hurtado de Mendoza. Francisco Trebol Navarro, Alcalde.	1769	I	875	--
Francisco Antonio Chaves and Bartolomé Montoya for themselves and twelve others of Atrisco vs. Diego Antonio Chaves, Atrisco, 1786 Question of entrances, exits, etc. Before Juan Bautista Anza, Governor. Manuel de Arteaga, Alcalde.	1786	I	204	--
Miguel Antonio Chaves. Atrisco Oct. 26-Dec. 2, 1806 Petition to the Governor protesting that he is required by the Teniente to do military duty while others are not.	1806	II	2026	--

CARNUE.

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Ignacio Tafoya and others, 1819 Grant to Cañon de Carnuel.	1819	I	1008	--
Juan García. 1821 Petition for lands in San Antonio de Carnue. Not granted. Before Facundo Melgares, Governor.	1821	I	385	--

ISLETA.

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Pedro de Chaves, Alcalde of San Agustin de Isleta, 1714	1714	I	1117	--
Flores Mogollon. Santa Fe, Feb. 19, 1715 Edicts and council of war held on the subject of an Apache Indian who had come peaceably to the Pueblo of Isleta but who refused to go to Santa Fe to see the Governor. Report from Pedro de Chaves, Alcalde.	1715	II	216	--
Phelipe. Indian of Isleta. Jan. 7, 1730 Release of the goods of this Indian who had been charged with witchcraft and who had died in prison.	1730	II	356	--
Melchor. Indian of Isleta, June 20-July 11, 1731 Proceedings, writs, testimony, etc., in the case against him in which it was charged that he had drowned his wife in the Rio Grande near the Pueblo. Judgment; banished for two months with right to re-open the case.	1731	II	359	14
Diego de Padilla vs. Indians of Isleta, 1733 Question of pasturage. Gervasio Cruzat, Governor. Juan Gonzales Bas, Alcalde. The decision was favorable to the Indians.	1733	I	684	--
Melchor Trujillo, et al., Indians of Isleta, Feb. 13-17, 1733 Proceedings in a trial for witchcraft against him, the cacique, and a woman. They were charged with having bewitched Vicente García.	1733	II	381	--

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Francisco Padilla. Isleta, 1768 Relating to the sale of one-seventh of the Diego Padilla grant to Clemente Gutierrez. Pedro Fermin de Mendinueta, Governor. Francisco Trebol Navarro, Alcalde.	1768	I	695	--
Pueblo of Isleta, July 4-Nov. 2, 1771 The Indians complained against Mariano Beitia. The accusation was proved false and the cacique deposed.	1771	II	662	12
Juan José Ramos Sedillo. Isleta, July 10-21, 1790 Preliminary trial of the above charged with the attempt to murder Bartolo Gallego. Manuel de Arteaga, Alcalde Mayor, Partido de Alburquerque.	1790	II	1085	--
Toribio García Jurado, et al. Islcta, Dec. 22, 1791, April 1, 1792 Proceedings of the trial for disobedience to the orders of the Acting Governor Antonio Guerrero, making a levy of oxen and men for the building of a bridge across the Rio Grande near San Phelipe. Governor Concha. Manuel de Arteaga, Alcalde Mayor, Alburquerque. Judgment: Fines to be applied to costs and to the maintenance of the friendly Apache in the jurisdiction of Belen.	1792	II	1175	14
Isabel Baca, Pueblo of Isleta, 1792 Investigation to determine whether she has any lands in the Pajarito Tract by inheritance. Report by Manuel de Arteaga, Alcalde.	1792	I	122	--
Juan Aragon. Isleta, Jan. 23-Mar. 15, 1792 Trial on complaint of Manuel Antonio Aragon and others, for oppressive conduct. The case was dismissed.	1792	II	1186a	10
Antonio Mariá Montoya and Manuel Baca. Isleta; Alburquerque, Jurisdiction of Rio Abajo, May 12, 1796 Trial for theft. Writs, testimony, sentence.	1796	II	1362	3
Fernando de Chacon. Santa Fe, June 15, 1802 Relative to the charge of Isleta being unjustly given to Juna Jose Sida, cura interino of Alburquerque.	1802	II	1610	--
José Antonio Baca. Isleta, Sept. 26-Oct. 16, 1805 Trial for stock theft. Testimony, sentence.	1805	II	1894	3
Manrrique. Santa Fe, Nov. 10, 1810 Ordering that Manuela Carillo be required to remove her livestock from the lands belonging to the Pueblo of Isleta.	1810	II	2376	2
Antonio Ximenes vs. Agustin Beytia. Isleta, Oct. 8, 1819-April 11, 1820 Suit to recover for Manuel Carrio, a debt due on a livestock contract. Petitions, orders, exhibits.	1820	II	2851	18
Melgares. Santa Fe, Aug. 16, 1821 Order that a summons be sent to the Alcalde of of Isleta for the appearance of Francisco de Chaves in Santa Fe to answer for a debt due to the estate of the deceased Alferez Fernando Delgado.	1821	II	3006	1

	Date.	Vol.	Arch.	No. Fol.
Ojo de la Cabra Grant. Isleta, Mar. 27, 1845 Protest by the Indians of the Pueblo of Isleta relative to the granting of the Ojo de la Cabra to Juan Otero.	1845	I	1381	--
LOS PADILLAS.				
José Antonio Chaves for himself and in the name of the heirs of Estevan and Bernardo Padilla, all of San Andres de los Padillas Title as to lands. Before Jose Manrrique, Governor. Lorenzo Gutiérrez, Alcalde.	1809	I	209	--
Ursula Chaves, of Los Padillas, vs. Joaquin Pino Question of a rancho by the name of El Rito. Before Facundo Melgares, Governor.	1821	I	216, 217	--
Ursula Chaves, of Los Padillas, in the name of her husband, Antonio Sandoval, 1824 In the matter of a petition for lands made by her said husband situated at Agua Negra.	1824	I	900	--
Ursula Chaves. Santa Fe, July 5, 1835 Dispossession of certain lands near Los Padillas. Governor Perez.	1835	I	1377	--
PAJARITO.				
Joseph Francisco Montoya vs. Baltazar Romero Question of a tract of land at Pajarito. Pedro de Chaves, Alcade.	1733	I	517	--
Josepha Baca. Pajarito, 1746 Will and inventory of estate.	1746	I	94	--
Clemente Gutiérrez, Pajarito, May 20, 1785 Will made by his attorney, Josef Mariano de la Peña, his son-in-law.	1785	I	371	--
SAN ANTONIO.				
Luís García. San Antonio, Jurisdiction of Alburquerque Inventory of estate.	1747	I	341	--
Luís García de Noriega. 1747 Proceedings in the matter of the partition of his estate. Joseph Baca, Alcalde.	1747	I	342	--
SAN FERNANDO.				
Juan Bautista Montaño. San Fernando del Río Puerco, 1767 Petition asking for lands. Not granted.	1767	I	573	--
San Fernando del Rio Puerco, 1767 Complaint of raids of Apaches. Pedro Fermín de Mendinueta, Governor.	1767	I	692	--
Nuestra Señora de la Luz San Fernando y San Blas del Rio Puerco, 1770 Question of boundaries with Antonio Baca. Carlos Mirabal, Alcalde.	1770	I	1083	--
Nuestra Señora de la Luz San Fernando y San Blas Partition of lands. Petition is given. Bernabe Montaño y Cuellar, Alcalde.	1772	I	277	--

CHAPTER XVII

THE FUR TRADE, THE SANTA FE TRADE AND THE TEXAS EXPEDITIONS, 1821-1846

While the political groups in Mexico were struggling for power, carrying on corrupt elections and appeals to arms and weakening the economic stability of the country through a reign of lawlessness, the American frontiersmen were developing the resources of the northern provinces of Mexico from Texas to California. New Mexico was becoming dependent upon the United States for merchandise and revenue.

Beaver along the Rio Grande had attracted the attention of Chouteau and De Mun in 1815, but their efforts to procure a license to trap them had ended in complete failure. It was not until the trade between the Missouri Valley and Santa Fe had been legalized in 1821 that the American trappers began to operate. Trapping by foreigners was illegal, but regardless of that fact it was continued until the beaver became so scarce in the Rio Grande and the Colorado basin that it was no longer profitable. Between 1821 and 1823 the Pecos and the Rio Grande Valley were visited by the trappers, there being probably 100 men engaged in gathering furs. During the years 1824-1826 trapping was extended to the Colorado Basin. The San Juan, the Little Colorado and the Gila Valley were so often retrapped that by 1826 the beaver was almost exterminated. The value of the furs collected during this period has been estimated at $100,000. The fur traders by 1832 had opened a series of trails into California, and engaged in trapping beaver in the San Joaquin Valley and hunting sea otter by boat along the coast of southern California. The fur trade rapidly declined between 1832 and 1837 on account of the scarcity of beaver, but the fur trader's explorations of routes between the Rio Grande and the Pacific Coast marked an important development in the expansion of the United States, because the knowledge gained by them was used by the official American explorers between 1846 and 1860.

One of the earliest parties to take beaver in New Mexico was that headed by Hugh Glenn and Jacob Fowler. These men with twenty companions left Glenn's post near the mouth of the Verdigris River, which flows into the Arkansas a short distance west of the Neosho in the eastern part of the present state of Oklahoma, on September 21, 1821. They arrived at Taos on February 8, having travelled up the Arkansas as far as Pueblo, Colorado. They received permission to trap along the Rio Grande. Supplies at Taos were very scarce due to the crops of the two preceding years having been destroyed by grasshoppers. Fowler spent the spring of 1822 trapping along the Upper Rio Grande. Glenn and Fowler joined the party of Robert and John McKnight which left Santa Fe for St. Louis on June 1, 1822, and arrived at their destination about the middle of July.

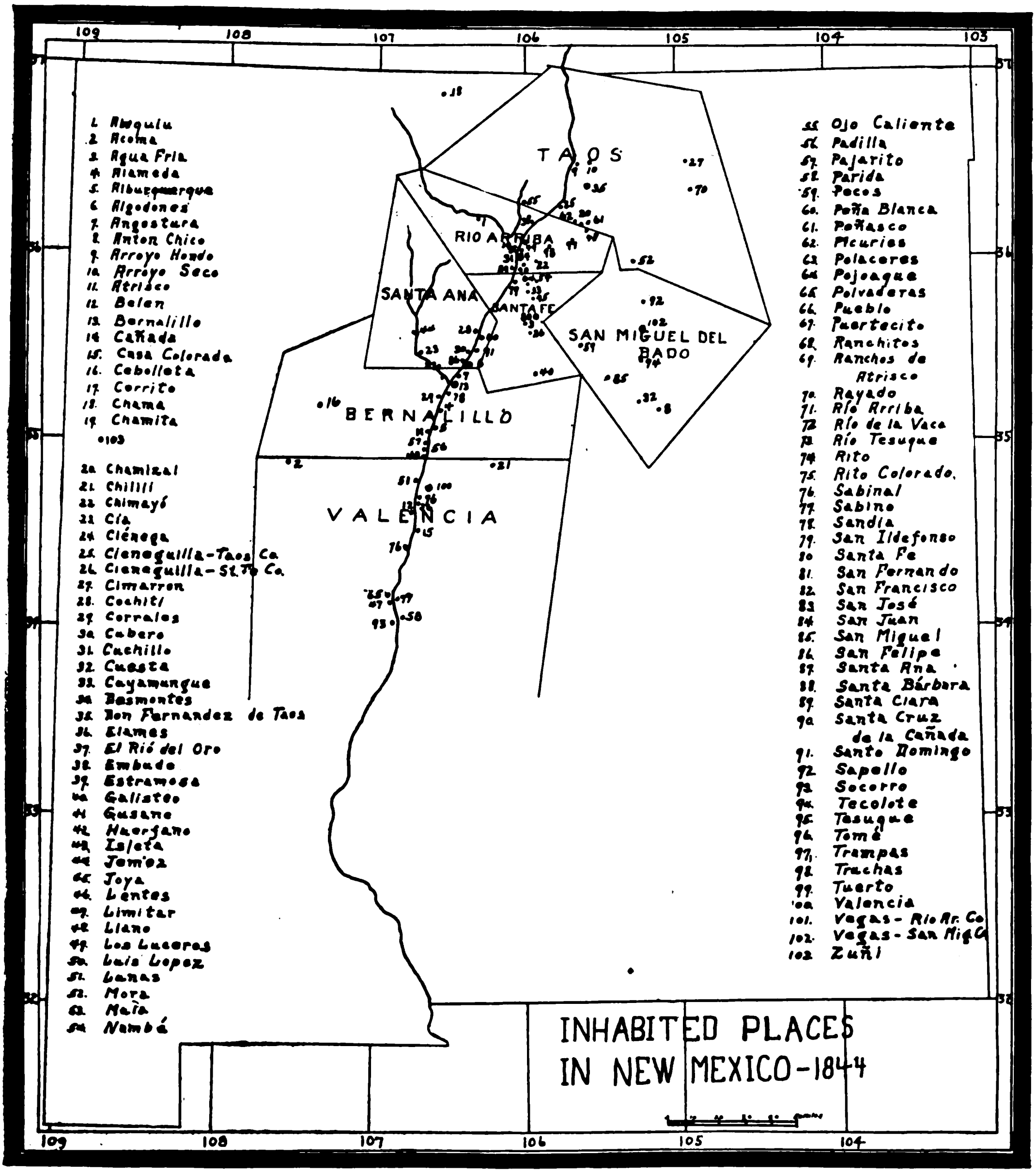
The extension of trapping by American fur traders began in 1822 under Ewing Young and William Wolfskill. Young first visited Santa Fe with Becknell's first expedition in 1821 returning to St. Louis in the fall of that year. Both Young and Wolfskill returned to New Mexico with Becknell's party in 1822 and decided to remain in the country to engage in trade as well as trapping. The latter occupation was not open to foreigners, but since the Mexicans would not trap the governors often made no opposition to Americans taking beaver. Young organized a party in the fall of 1822 and trapped down the Rio Grande. In February of the following year a party was formed by Young, Wolfskill and Slover at Taos for the purpose of extending their activities to the San Juan Basin. The furs taken were valued at $10,000. Another party was organized in the fall of the same year, probably headed by Young, consisting of sixty men for the purpose of trapping along the San Juan. In the summer of 1825 Young returned to St. Louis, but was back in New Mexico organizing a more extensive trapping expedition after the arrival of the caravan at Santa Fe in 1826.

In the fall of 1826 Governor Narbona of New Mexico issued licenses to several parties of Americans for trading expeditions to Sonora. However, the principal purpose of these companies of traders was the trapping of beaver in the Gila Valley. James Baird, who had been a prisoner at Chihuahua from 1812 until 1821 and who had returned to Mexico in 1822 after a trip to St. Louis, had become a Mexican citizen and had engaged in the fur trade in southern New Mexico. He reported, October 21, 1826, to the commander of the El Paso district, Alexandro Ramírez, that $100,000 in furs had been taken out of the country illegally, that at the time 100 Americans were trapping in the Gila Valley, that they refused to pay any attention to the laws of the country, and that the fur-bearing animals were rapidly being exterminated to the detriment of Mexican citizens interested in the trade. It seems probable that the four parties licensed by Governor Narbona in the fall of 1826 were the 100 men referred to by Baird. The licenses issued were to the following: Isaac Williams and Ceran St. Vrain with twenty men; Miguel Robidoux and Sylvester Pratte with thirty men; John Rueland with eighteen men; and Ewing Young with eighteen men. The Robidoux party went by way of the Santa Rita copper mines, where they were joined by James Ohio Pattie, who at the time was engaged in operating the mines. Near the junction of the Gila and the Salt River the members of the Robidoux party were killed by the Indians, with the exception of Robidoux, Pattie and one other, who joined a party of thirty trappers, which was probably the one led by Ewing Young. Young, with a company of thirty men had left Santa Fe and travelled to the Gila Valley by way of the copper mines. After Pattie joined the Young party they trapped up the Salt and the Verde River. They followed down the Gila and up the Colorado to the Mohave country where a battle took place because the traders refused to pay tribute to the Indians. Sixteen natives were killed. A few days later the Indians killed two of the trappers. The trappers continued along the Colorado to the mouth of the San Juan which they ascended a short distance, but returned to the Colorado which they followed, crossing to the South Platte in the vicinity of the present city of Denver. They then crossed to the Upper Arkansas which they descended, having another conflict with the Indians, killing sixteen and losing four of their party. The last stage of this grand tour was over the divide from the Arkansas to the Rio Grande and into Santa Fe. It seems that the traders had heard rumors which caused them to believe that the governor, Manuel Armijo, would confiscate their furs so they 'cached' them with a Mexican named Luís Cabeza de Vaca. The governor learned of this action and sent a detachment of soldiers to bring the furs to Santa Fe. In the course of the seizure the Mexican, De Vaca, was shot. When Milton Sublette saw the twenty-nine packs worth about $20,000 being spread out to dry in the plaza at Santa Fe, he noticed several that were his personal property. He seized them and successfully carried them to the market at St. Louis. Others were not so fortunate. George Yount, another member of the expedition, lost all his furs as the result of the confiscation and was forced to remain for another season before returning to St. Louis. The failure of the expedition did not cause Ewing Young to leave the country. He was yet to extend his journeys to the Pacific Coast. In the summer of 1828 he bought goods from William Wolfskill, who had brought them over the Santa Fe trail, and outfitted an expedition to the Colorado. The party was attacked and forced to return to Taos. In the fall of 1828 Wolfskill made a trip to El Paso for wine and brandy, returning to Taos in the spring of 1829.

Two expeditions left New Mexico for California during the second half of 1829: the one, an American party led by Ewing Young; the other, Mexican, under the leadership of Antonio Armijo. The demand for mules created by the Santa Fe trade was in part the cause of these developments which opened the trails to southern California. Young left Taos with forty men among whom was "Kit" Carson, in August, 1829. In order to throw the Mexicans off their trail they went north to the San Luis Valley, struck southward to Zuñi, proceeded to the Salt Valley and followed up the Verde Valley. At this point all but eighteen of the party returned to Taos while the remainder continued the journey westward. From the Upper Verde Valley they travelled to the Colorado which they crossed near the El Dorado ferry below the Grand Canyon. After making the journey across the desert the company passed through the Cajón Pass to Los Angeles. The spring of 1830 was spent in trapping in the San Joaquin Valley. While in the valley Young met Peter Skene Ogden of the Hudson's Bay Company. Thus a party from Taos, New Mexico, and another from Vaucouver, Washington, had met. Young succeeded in establishing trade relations at San José, California, which is thirty miles south of San Francisco, where he was able to sell his furs for mules. In September Young and his party were again in Los Angeles ready to start for New Mexico. Before leaving some of the men obtained too much Mexican liquor and in a drunken quarrel James Higgins killed James Lawrence, an incident of the frontier life showing that all violent deaths were not due to the Indians. On the return trip they gathered furs along the Colorado and the Gila arriving in the spring of 1831 at the Santa Rita copper mines, which at that time were being worked by Robert McKnight, who had been a captive with Baird at Chihuahua from 1812 until 1821. Young brought 2,000 pounds of furs into Santa Fe and in April, 1831, was back in Taos.

The Antonio Armijo party which consisted of sixty men departed for California from Abiquiu, New Mexico, on November 7, 1829. This expedition opened a trail north of those followed by Young. They crossed to the San Juan and followed along the north side of the valley to the Mancos River, along the south side of the San Juan Valley to the "Ford of the Fathers" on the Colorado River, north to Sevier Lake and southwest to the Mohave River, across the Mohave desert, through Cajón Pass and to Los Angeles, which they reached on January 31, 1830. Only a few days were spent in California. All that is known of the return jonrney is that it was made in a month's less time than the outward trip and that the party arrived at Jemez, New Mexico, on April 25, 1830, exactly a year before Young returned from his trading expedition to California. The Young and Armijo trails have been followed from 1830 to the present by the trade between the Mississippi Valley and Southern California.

Young himself was instrumental in outfitting two groups at Santa Fe to operate between that place and the Pacific Coast in the next year. Three well-known American fur traders of Missouri, David Jackson, William Sublette and Jedediah Smith, equipped a caravan to trade with Santa Fe in the spring of 1831. On the way over the Santa Fe trail the party lost their way and while hunting for water Smith, who had been through many Indian fights, was killed. When the party arrived at Santa Fe Sublette decided to return to St. Louis, while the remaining member created a new organization called Jackson, Waldo and Company, of which Ewing Young was a prominent member. These



109
108
107
106
105
104
103
1. Abiquiu
2. Acoma
3. Agua Fria
4. Alameda
5. Albuquerque
6. Algodones
7. Angostura
8. Anton Chico
9. Arroyo Hondo
10. Arroyo Seco
11. Atrisco
12. Belen
13. Bernalillo
14. Cañada
15. Casa Colorada
16. Cebolleta
17. Corrito
18. Chama
19. Chamita
20. Chamizal
21. Chilili
22. Chimayó
23. Cía
24. Ciénega
25. Cieneguilla-Taos Co.
26. Cieneguilla-St. Fe Co.
27. Cimarron
28. Cochiti
29. Corrales
30. Cubero
31. Cuchillo
32. Cuesta
33. Cuyamungue
34. Desmontes
35. Don Fernandez de Taos
36. Elames
37. El Rió del Oro
38. Embudo
39. Estramosa
40. Galisteo
41. Gusano
42. Huerfano
43. Isleta
44. Jem'ez
45. Joya
46. Lentes
47. Limitar
48. Llano
49. Los Luceros
50. Luis Lopez
51. Lunas
52. Mora
53. Maïa
54. Nambé
55. Ojo Caliente
56. Padilla
57. Pajarito
58. Parida
59. Pecos
60. Peña Blanca
61. Peñasco
62. Picuries
63. Polacores
64. Pojoaque
65. Polvaderas
66. Pueblo
67. Puertecito
68. Ranchitos
69. Ranchos de Atrisco
70. Rayado
71. Río Arriba
72. Río de la Vaca
73. Río Tesuque
74. Rito
75. Rito Colorado.
76. Sabinal
77. Sabino
78. Sandia
79. San Ildefonso
80. Santa Fe
81. San Fernando
82. San Francisco
83. San José
84. San Juan
85. San Miguel
86. San Felipe
87. Santa Ana
88. Santa Bárbara
89. Santa Clara
90. Santa Cruz de la Cañada
91. Santo Domingo
92. Sapello
93. Socorro
94. Tecolote
95. Tesuque
96. Tomé
97. Trampas
98. Truchas
99. Tuerto
100. Valencia
101. Vegas - Rio Ar. Co
102. Vegas - San Mig C
103. Zuñi
TAOS
RIO ARRIBA
SANTA ANA
SANTA FE
SAN MIGUEL DEL BADO
BERNALILLO
VALENCIA
INHABITED PLACES IN NEW MEXICO-1844

INHABITED PLACES IN NEW MEXICO, 1844

men planned to send two parties to California in the fall of 1831: the one, under Jackson, to get mules which were to be taken to the United States; the other, headed by Young, to trap in the San Joaquin and the Sacramento Valley. Jackson left Santa Fe with eleven men on August 29. He took the southern route by way of the copper mines, San Javier del Bac, San Diego to Los Angeles, where he arrived on December 5, and proceeded northward to the San Francisco Bay region. Ewing Young started later, in October, and followed the same route taken in 1829. He had thirty-six men in his company when he left Taos, but only thirteen went through to California. Shortly after the arrival of Young at Los Angeles, March 14, 1832, Jackson returned from the north with 600 mules and 100 horses. The original plan had been to take the mules across New Mexico and Texas to Louisiana, but instead it was decided that Jackson should return to New Mexico, while Young remained in California to hunt sea otter and beaver. After accompanying Jackson to the Colorado River, Young went back to Los Angeles, chartered a boat for sea otter hunting, but after a trial gave it up and with fourteen men he made a hunting trip through the entire length of California. Young never returned to New Mexico. The fur trade continued until 1846 and on a small scale even after that date. Antoine Robidoux had a fur trading post on the Gunnison River where furs were collected from the Colorado and its tributaries and taken to Santa Fe to be traded for supplies brought over the Santa Fe trail from Missouri.

The Santa Fe trade and the fur trade began in 1821 and ended in 1846; the former ended at that time because the international nature of commerce across the prairies ceased to exist with the occupation of New Mexico by the United States; the latter, due to the scarcity of beaver. This does not mean that the freighting of goods from the Missouri Valley to Santa Fe suddenly ceased. At a matter of fact the commerce greatly increased, but it was no longer into foreign territory. The attempts to establish trade relations with Santa Fe before the independence of Mexico in 1821 failed as had the efforts to trap the rivers of New Mexico. The situation changed in that year, commercial relations were opened with the Missouri Valley and have continued under changing conditions of transportation to the present. It was the first period of this commerce, between 1821 and 1846, that was known as the Santa Fe Trade and also as the Commerce of the Prairies.

The Santa Fe Trade was a success because merchandise could be freighted across the plains to the markets of New Mexico and sold for a lower price than goods could be brought from Vera Cruz by way of Chihuahua. At Chihuahua City American goods were sold in competition with English and other foreign products, but the market was not monopolized by the American traders as was the case in New Mexico. Cotton goods made up approximately half of the total amount of the freight, the other half consisting of silks, notions, hardware, machinery and almost all of the articles that were found in the stock of a general store on the Missouri frontier in 1821. The value of the merchandise in the eastern markets of the United States taken to Santa Fe in 1823 was $15,000, twenty years later, $450,000 of which $300,000 was taken to Chihuahua City. In 1824 pack animals were still being used, the total number of wagons being twenty-six, while in 1843 there were 230 wagons. Fifty men, thirty of whom were proprietors, were required in the business in 1823. Twenty years later the number of men had increased to 350, but the number of proprietors was the same as in 1823, although in some of the intervening years the number of owners had been as high as ninety. The amount of the merchandise sent to Chihuahua in 1824 was $3,000, and in 1843 it was $300,000. The import duties collected in New Mexico amounted in 1825 to $3,595, while in 1843, they totalled $81,000.

After 1825 the chief source of revenue for the government of New Mexico was derived from the Santa Fe trade. There were four forms of taxation connected with this commerce. The customs house was located at Santa Fe although Taos was legally the port of entry. When the wagons arrived at Santa Fe the goods were placed in the warehouses of the customs office, where the import duties were assessed. In 1830 these were 60 per cent on the cost. Some writers state that the duties at times were as high as 100 per cent. The tariff of 1837 fixed the duty on plain cotton cloth at one *real* or 12½ cents for a yard. In 1839 Governor Armijo arbitrarily levied a tax of $500 on each wagon in order to prevent smuggling or agreements between the traders and the customs house officials. The second form of taxation was the consumption, or sales tax, which in 1837 amounted to about 3 cents on a yard of plain cotton goods. The third tax was levied on gold and silver taken out of the country and the fourth on furs which were freighted to St. Louis as a return cargo for the Santa Fe traders.

STATISTICS OF THE SANTA FE TRADE, 1822-1846

Year	Amt. of Mdse.	No. Wgns.	No. Men	No. Owners	Mdse to Chihuahua	Import Duties
1822	$ 15,000	---	70	60	-------	------
1823	12,000	---	50	30	-------	------
1824	35,000	26	100	80	$ 3,000	------
1825	65,000	37	130	90	5,000	$ 3,595
1826	90,000	60	100	70	7,000	10,391
1827	85,000	55	90	50	8,000	5,938
1828	150,000	100	200	80	20,000	27,907
1829	60,000	30	50	20	5,000	12,691
1830	120,000	70	140	60	20,000	31,882
1831	250,000	130	320	80	80,000	31,314
1832	140,000	70	150	40	50,000	25,227

1833	180,000	105	185	60	80,000	29,297
1834	150,000	80	160	50	70,000	------
1835	140,000	75	140	40	70,000	------
1836	130,000	75	135	35	60,000	21,219
1837	150,000	80	160	35	80,000	------
1838	90,000	50	100	20	40,000	------
1839	250,000	130	250	40	100,000	------
1840	50,000	30	60	5	10,000	------
1841	150,000	60	100	12	80,000	------
1842	160,000	70	120	15	90,000	27,921
1843	450,000	230	350	30	300,000	81,000
1844	200,000	90	200	--	-------	------
1845	No figs.					
1846	937,500	500	375	--	-------	------

Trails from the Missouri Valley to the Rocky Mountains had been made before the beginning of the Santa Fe trade. The way to Santa Fe was well known, but with the establishment of the annual caravan the route became fixed and somewhat changed from the earlier routes. The fur traders before 1821 had followed up the Arkansas, after striking that river at Great Bend, to the Las Animas River, had crossed the divide separating the Arkansas from the Canadian and had travelled down the Canadian Valley east of the Sangre de Cristo Mountains. In 1822 the route was changed placing half of the road within Mexican territory. Instead of proceeding up the Arkansas, the traders crossed that river at the upper end of the Great Bend, made their way to the Cimarron Valley, which was between the Arkansas and the Canadian, and followed that stream almost to its scource where they crossed the divide to the Canadian in New Mexico.

The early traders started from Franklin, Missouri, about 150 miles east of Kansas City, but after 1831 the outfitting points generally used were Independence and Westport, present day suburbs of Kansas City, near the mouth of the Kansas River. The first part of the journey from the starting point to Council Grove, 145 miles from Independence was over well-watered prairies and free from danger. It was not until the wagons of the various proprietors reached this place that they organized into one body for protection by appointing officers to take charge of the caravan between Council Grove and San Miguel, New Mexico, where the caravan organization was abandoned. The second stage of the trail covered 242 miles from Council Grove to the ford of the Arkansas at the upper end of the Great Bend. Small parties were sometimes bothered on this part of the route, but the principal difficulty met was due to the necessity of fording a number of rivers. The third section of the route was the most difficult part on account of the absence of water, the prevalence of storms and Indian attacks. It was sixty-six miles to the lower spring on the Cimarron. The first expedition by this route in 1822 suffered from lack of water, but the members finally succeeded in finding their way through to the Canadian in New Mexico. As late as 1831 parties had trouble in finding the trail because the marks of the former wagons were covered by the blowing sand of the desert. The Jackson-Sublette-Smith expedition in that year lost its way and Jedediah Smith was killed while scouting for water. The last section of the trail extended from the Upper Cimarron to the Canadian, over the divide to the Pecos Valley and on to Santa Fe.

The well-known land marks from Independence, Missouri, along the trail and the distances between the places were recorded by Josiah Gregg in *Commerce of the Prairies,* as follows:

First Part

Names	Mi.	Tot.
Round Grove	35	---
Narrows	30	65
110 Mile Creek	30	95
Bridge Creek	8	103
Big John Spring	40	143
Council Grove	2	145

Second Part

Names	Mi.	Tot.
Diamond Spring	15	160
Lost Spring	15	175
Cottonwood Creek	12	187
Turkey Creek	25	212
Little Arkansas	17	229
Cow Creek	20	249
Arkansas River	16	265
Walnut Creek	8	273
Ash Creek	19	292
Pawnee Fork	6	298
Coon Creek	33	331
Caches	36	367
Ford of the Arkansas River	20	387

Third Part

Names	Mi.	Tot.
Sand Creek	50	437
Lower Spring Cimarron River	8	445
Middle Spring Cimarron River	36	481
Willow Bar	26	507
Upper Spring Cimarron River	18	525
Cold Spring	5	530

Fourth Part

Names	Mi.	Tot.
M'Nees Creek	25	555
Rabbit-Ear Creek	20	575
Round Mound	8	583
Rock Creek	8	591
Point of Rocks	19	610
Rio Colorado (Canadian)	20	630
Ocate Creek	6	636
Santa Clara Spring	21	657
Rio Mora	22	679
Rio Gallinas (Vegas)	20	699
Ojo de Bernal (Spring)	17	716
San Miguel	6	722
Pecos Village	23	745
Santa Fe	25	770

The aid of the United States government was sought in the fall of 1824 in protecting the caravans from Indians and in the marking of the trail. Thomas Benton, senator from Missouri, introduced a bill into Congress, December 14, 1824, asking that the government make treaties with the Indians in order to insure the safe passage of the traders and that a military post be established on the frontier between the United States and Mexico. The United States Congress passed an act appropriating $20,000 for the making of treaties with the Indians along the trail and $10,000 for the survey and marking of the trail. Commissioners Benjamin Reeves, George C. Sibley and Thomas Mather, who were appointed by the President, met the Indians at Council Grove in June, 1825. The surveying and marking of the trail was done by J. C. Brown, placing the marks along the trail from Fort Osage to Taos.

A military post was not established on the Upper Arkansas, but in 1829, 1834 and 1843 the principal caravan was accompanied by a military escort. The first of these consisted of four companies of the Sixth United States Infantry, commanded by Major Bennett Riley from Fort Leavenworth. About the middle of July the caravan and escort camped on the Arkansas, the commander agreeing to wait until October 10 for the return of the traders. Shortly after the traders crossed the Arkansas into Mexican territory, they were attacked. The escort crossed the river and drove away the Indians. On the return trip the traders were escorted to the Arkansas by a New Mexican force under Col. Antonio Vizcarra. In the Cimarron Valley they were attacked by Indians and three of the escort were killed. The United States military escort of 1834 was under the command of Captain Wharton. The escort of 1843 was made up of 200 United States dragoons under Capt. St. George Cooke. Upon reaching the Arkansas Cooke found Shively with a command of 100 Texans whom he proceeded to disarm much to the disgust of the Texans. Cooke's command then returned to the Missouri Valley.

The expedition that holds first place among the many that crossed the plains to Santa Fe was that of William Becknell. The party left Franklin, Missouri, on September 1, 1821, for the purpose of hunting and trading on the Upper Arkansas, but on November 13, they met a party of Mexicans who persuaded them to carry their goods to Santa Fe where they arrived on November 16. After spending a month in Santa Fe and having sold his goods at a large profit, Becknell left for the Missouri Valley on December 13 and arrived there January 29, 1822.

Two expeditions were planned for the summer of 1822: the one, under Becknell; and the other, headed by Benjamin Cooper and his nephews, Braxton and Stephen. The Cooper party consisted of fifteen men with merchandise carried on pack animals. They left the Missouri Valley in April, followed the Arkansas Valley to the mountains and turned south to Taos by way of the Canadian Valley. These men returned to Missouri in the fall. The Becknell company which consisted of twenty-one men and three wagons made their start on May 22 from Franklin and before reaching the Arkansas had trouble with the Osage Indians, who refused to allow the party to pass through their country, but the traders finally succeeded in gaining the good will of the Indians. Upon reaching the Arkansas the company was joined by John Heath. Instead of following up the Arkansas a new trail which became the regular route for later caravans, was made by way of the Cimarron Valley thus shortening the route. Becknell in the two expeditions had opened the trade with Santa Fe and successfully taken wagons over the shorter Cimarron route. Merchandise amounting to $150 was sold for $700 in Santa Fe.

A third party of fifty men set out from Franklin in the fall of 1822 under the leadership of James Baird and Samuel Chambers. (Baird and Chambers had been held in Chihuahua from 1812 until 1821 and had left Santa Fe on their return to the Missouri country on June 1, 1822.) Near the location known as Caches, five miles west of Dodge City, they were unable to proceed on account of stormy weather. They remained in this region during the winter, losing all of their stock. In the spring they went to Taos, procured animals and came back for their property which they had placed in caches, hence the name.

The only expedition recorded in 1823 was that led by Benjamin Cooper made up of thirty men, each taking two pack horses loaded with $200 worth of goods. They left in May and returned in October, bringing with them furs and about 400 mules.

In 1824 New Mexicans began to take part in the trade and in less than ten years they had become the proprietors of approximately half of the merchandise. The caravan from Franklin in this year was larger and used more wagons than any of the preceding parties. The party which consisted of eighty-one men started their journey on May 15, arrived at Santa Fe July 28 and reached the Missouri River settlements on September 24. The returns were large, amounting to $180,000 in precious metals and furs. Two other parties crossed the plains to Santa Fe during this year. One of these led by Sylvester Pratte, Sylvester Pattie and James Ohio Pattie left the Missouri July 30, arriving in Santa Fe November 5. The other under Braxton Cooper began the journey in the fall. Cooper's party lost one member in a fight with the Osage and another was killed in a battle with the Comanche.

The trade continued and increased until in 1843 the value of the goods exported from the United States to Mexico by way of the Santa Fe trail amounted to almost $500,000. At the time it was supposed by the Americans in Texas to amount to several millions. The Texan-Santa Fe expedition of 1841 had as one of its purposes, the drawing of the trade away from the northern trail to a route through Texas. In 1839 Josiah Gregg started with $25,000 worth of goods and fourteen wagons from Van Buren near Fort Smith on the Arkansas to Chihuahua City by way of Santa Fe. He followed the Canadian Valley which was an untried route. In commenting on this route Gregg stated that it was somewhat shorter, that grass was better, that there were fewer rivers to cross, but that the Missouri Valley would continue its monopoly of the Santa Fe trade. Later developments proved that Gregg's opinion in this matter was correct. It would seem that since Gregg's principal market was Chihuahua he might have taken a more direct route across Texas, but he feared the aridity of the country and the difficulties that might be met in entering the goods at the port of entry on the Rio Grande. In this same year an expedition was organized in Chihuahua City to follow this direct route. After many difficulties they finally arrived at Fort Towson on Gates Creek which flows into Red River. The party included among its members Dr. Henry Connelly, a prominent trader in the southwest until the Civil war. The party returned to Chihuahua in 1840, but no other attempt was made to carry goods through Texas into Mexico prior to the Mexican war.

The Texan Santa Fe expeditions occurred in 1841 and 1843 and had for their purpose the establishing of the jurisdiction of the republic of Texas over the territory east of the Rio Grande which was claimed as the western boundary of Texas and the establishing of trade relations between Texas and New Mexico in order to gain the profits that were monopolized by the traders from the Missouri Valley. The independence of Mexico had been followed by the colonization of Texas by citizens of the United States and the Texas war for independence in 1836. Mexico did not recognize Texas as independent, but was unable to reconquer the area. Texas on the other hand not only claimed the Rio Grande boundary but some of the leaders dreamed of extending the authority of the republic to the Pacific Coast. The Texan Santa Fe expeditions were a part of the expansionist plans of the republic of Texas.

The idea of establishing commercial relations with Santa Fe had been suggested by Stephen F. Austin in 1829. George S. Park, a Texan, wrote from Santa Fe in 1837 that Texas could procure control of Santa Fe if it would open a route to that place and that authority could be extended from there to California. He also stated that the New Mexicans were willing to unite with Texas. A bill providing for the opening of trade with the northwestern part of the republic was defeated in the Congress of Texas in 1838. Governor Armijo of New Mexico reported in 1839 that many of the people in New Mexico would assist in the establishing of Texan control in the province. William G. Dryden, who had been in Santa Fe for several years, arrived in Austin, Texas, in April, 1840, where he had a conference with President Lamar. He returned to Santa Fe September 17, 1840, where he issued a proclamation to the citizens of Santa Fe addressed to them by Lamar in which W. G. Dryden, John Rowland and William Workman were appointed temporary commissioners for the Texas republic in New Mexico. They were to explain the object of the expedition which would arrive from

Texas in August or September, 1840. The expedition from Texas did not arrive until a year later. In the meantime reports were received in Mexico of the activities of the Texans both from Armijo, who said he would have to flee unless aid was furnished him because the Mexicans and the Indians were generally favorable to the Texans; and from agents in Texas, who reported in May that the expedition was being organized and that it left for New Mexico in July. Governor Armijo, in the summer of 1841, appointed agents to prevent an uprising among the Mexican and Pueblo Indians and to guard the frontiers. Antonio Sandoval was instructed to prevent a revolt of the Pueblos, Juan Felipe Ortiz to create a spirit of opposition to the Texans among the Mexicans, Santiago Ulivarri to guard the northern border and Damasio Salazar to protect the eastern frontier along the Pecos River.

The trading expeditions from the Lower Arkansas and across to Chihuahua in 1839 encouraged President Lamar of the Texas Republic in his belief that the financial troubles of Texas might be improved through the development of trade with Santa Fe. In his message to Congress in 1839 he recommended that an expedition be sent to New Mexico. Lamar, November 1, 1840, suggested that trade relations be opened with Havana, Cuba, and that commerce be carried from Cuba through Texas to Santa Fe and Chihuahua City. Later trade relations were established with Cuba. The Texan Congress, January 30, 1841, approved the incorporation of the Texas Trading, Mining and Immigrating Company with a capital stock of $500,000. The company was for the purpose of establishing trading posts and carrying on trade with the Indians and Mexicans. The corporation was also granted the right to raise 300 troops for the protection of its posts. In November, 1840, the matter of sending commissioners to inform the inhabitants of Santa Fe that they were citizens of the Texas Republic was discussed in the Texan Congress, but no action was taken. On January 28, 1841, the House of Representatives of the Texan Congress authorized the raising of volunteers to be sent to Santa Fe, but the Senate failed to agree and the Congress adjourned without sanctioning the Santa Fe expedition.

President Lamar proceeded with the organization of the expedition and spent $80,000 in equipping the company. Volunteers were called for and the camp was established in May near Austin. The military force for the protection of the traders and for the occupation of New Mexico in case the people desired to become members of the Texas Republic, comprised about 300 soldiers and officers. They left their camp June 21, 1841. The three commissioners appointed by Lamar to negotiate with the people of New Mexico accompanied the expedition. They were William G. Cooke, José Antonio Navarro, and Richard F. Brenham. This military-commercial company had to travel unknown country particularly between the Red River and the Canadian River in northwestern Texas where the danger of Indians, starvation and losing their way was great. As a result of these causes the members arrived on the frontier of New Mexico in a demoralized condition. Carlos and Brignolk deserted from the expedition and arrived in Taos early in September. Their reports of the Texans were sent to Governor Armijo. Three members of the Texas party were captured by Captain Damasio Salazar on September 4. They were Howland, Baker and Rosenburg, who had been sent out from the main Texan party to find the way to the New Mexican settlements. Later Rosenburg was killed while trying to escape and Howland and Baker were shot in the Plaza of San Miguel by order of Governor Armijo, having been captured after making a break for freedom. Near La Cuesta between Anton Chico and San Miguel, Captain Salazar captured five members of another advance party including Kendall, Howard, Fitzgerald, Van Ness and Lewis. Salazar, according to Kendall's account, decided to immediately have them shot, but the intervention of Gregorio Vigil prevented this and instead they were taken to San Miguel where they were imprisoned. The third group to surrender consisted of Colonel Cooke, Captain Sutton and ninety-four men who gave up their arms to Armijo at Anton Chico upon the advice of Lewis who informed his former friends that they would be well treated and that they would be given back their arms when they should be ready to leave the country. Instead all the members were declared prisoners. Lewis had completely betrayed his companions. The main party, under General McLeod also gave up their arms without striking a blow due to the false representations made to them by the betrayer, Lewis. The principal party of the Texans, numbering 187 worn and ragged men, left San Miguel on October 17, 1841, on their long journey to Mexico City where they arrived early in 1842. Three of the party were put to death on the way to El Paso and two died from the strain of the forced marches that Captain Damasio Salazar ordered. In El Paso the captives were treated kindly and the rest of the journey was free from the inhumane treatment that the Texans had received from the military officials in New Mexico, although a number died of small pox contracted in Mexico. Those who were not sick, or able to gain their release as Thomas Falconer did, he being a British subject, were put to work on the roads in Mexico City. All of those who lived through the ordeal of the journey and the imprisonment were released June 13, 1842. The expedition had cost more than $100,000 and a number of lives and failed miserably. Under other conditions it might have easily resulted in Texas making good its claim to the Rio Grande as the western boundary of the Republic.

Texas continued to claim Eastern New Mexico to the Rio Grande regardless of the fact that her attempt to establish control over the area had failed. Mexico did not recognize the independence of Texas, therefore a state of war existed. Texan attacks in 1843 upon New Mexican settlements and New Mexicans on the Santa Fe Trail, in territory claimed by Mexico, were a part of an offensive against Mexico. In March and November the Mexican forces attacked San Antonio in which fifty-five Texan prisoners were taken. At Laredo 226 Texans were captured. Operations in the northwestern part of the Texan jurisdiction were due to the treatment received by the first Santa Fe expedition at the hands of the New Mexico officials, the absence of any large military force in New Mexico, and the Mexican trade with the Missouri Valley from Santa Fe which might be profitably attacked.

Charles A. Warfield, August 16, 1842, was authorized by the secretary of war of the Texas Republic to raise a volunteer company to strike at Mexico in New Mexico. He was given a commission as colonel and given authority to issue commissions with the understanding that they would be confirmed later by the Texan Government The pay was to be in the form of one-half the booty taken in attacks upon Mexican settlements, the other half to be delivered to the Republic of Texas. The soldiers were also to receive grants of land. Warfield was instructed to move toward Santa Fe. The place and time of assembling was fixed for May 15, 1843, at Point of Rocks, a well known land mark on the Santa Fe Trail, twenty miles east of the Canadian River, in northeastern New Mexico. Here Warfield hoped to assemble about 1,000 men. In the fall of 1842 Warfield went to the Upper Arkansas to enlist the trappers of that region in the undertaking, but was not very successful. Only twenty-four men left the Arkansas on March 21 for the meeting place, Point of Rocks. While waiting for the Texans, the party made an attack upon the Town of Mora in which five soldiers were killed and eighteen were captured. Seventy-four horses were also taken, but due to the large number of Mexican people in the vicinity of Mora the prisoners were released. On the following day the New Mexicans recaptured not only their own horses, but also all of those of Warfield's party, who retreated to the Arkansas in the vicinity of Bent's Fort. The Texas forces did not arrive as expected. Warfield disbanded his little company on May 29, 1843.

In February, 1843, Antonio José Chavez left Santa Fe for the Missouri Valley with a small party of five men, two wagons and fifty-five mules, carrying with him $10,000 in gold and some furs. By April 10 he had reached the Little Arkansas at a place 100 miles north of the international boundary. He was attacked by a party of fifteen men led by John McDaniel, who had been commissioned by Warfield to assist in the Texan attack up New Mexico. The party seems to have been organized on the Missouri frontier for the purpose of joining Warfield at Point of Rocks in New Mexico. Chavez was robbed and killed. Later John and David McDaniel were hanged by the United States for the crime and eight others were fined and imprisoned.

Major Jacob Snively was authorized by the Texan Government to conduct an expedition to the northwestern part of the lands claimed by Texas to attack the New Mexicans who were carrying on trade across lands considered by Texans to be a part of their lands. The force was maintained at the expense of the government. Snively was instructed to take any New Mexican property found, to place half of it to the government account and to divide the other half among the members of the expedition. The people of Texas believed that the expedition was for the purpose of taking Santa Fe, capturing Armijo and the traitor, Lewis, and making a descent upon Chihuahua with the intention of adding northern Mexico to the Texan Republic. The party consisting of 200 well equipped men left Georgetown, Texas, April 25, 1843, and marched to the Arkansas to intercept a party of New Mexican traders who had left the Missouri Valley. The Mexican minister in Washington, D. C., had asked that these traders be accompanied by a military escort which the United States furnished. Governor Armijo also led an expedition of 500 men to the Arkansas, leaving Santa Fe May 1, to protect the New Mexican traders after they crossed the boundary at the Arkansas. When the condition in the north became known in Mexico, President Santa Anna ordered the ports of entry at Taos, El Paso and Presidio del Norte closed to all northern commerce. In June negotiations were taking place for the settlement of difficulties between Texas and Mexico. The Texan Government declared an armistice and issued an order commanding Snively to return to the settlements in Texas. This order was never delivered and Snively continued his operations during the armistice. Snively's party, including the remnant of Warfield's company, arrived at the ford of the Arkansas about the same time as Armijo's little army. Along the trail south of the Arkansas, in territory in dispute between Texas and Mexico, Armijo's advance party of 100 men, under Capt. Ventura Lobato was met by the Texans. In the battle which followed led by Warfield eighteen of the New Mexican force were killed and the remainder captured. The prisoners were released and carried the word of the defeat to Armijo who immediately retreated to New Mexico. Shortly after and before Major Snively was aware of his presence, Capt. St. George Cooke, leading the escort to the caravan from Missouri, covered his camp and forced the surrender of the arms of the expedition. This took place south of the Arkansas and within territory claimed by the Texans. Later Captain Cooke was court-martialed and acquitted, but the United States agreed to pay Texas for the fire-arms confiscated from the Snively company. The Warfield and Snively campaigns, due to the killing of New Mexicans at Mora and on the Arkansas, had turned the indifference of the New Mexicans to hostility. For years after, Americans coming into conflict with the New Mexicans, were called *Tejanos*. This was particularly true during the Civil war.

CHAPTER XVIII

NEW MEXICO UNDER MEXICO, 1821-1846

The office of chief executive was held until 1837 by an officer called the political chief and after that date by the governor. The following men occupied the office during the Mexican period:

Facundo Melgares		1818	July	1822
Francisco Xavier Chaves	July	1822	November	1822
Antonio Vizcarra	November	1822	September	1823
Bartolomé Baca	September	1823	September	1825
Antonio Narbona	September	1825	May	1827
Manuel Armijo	May	1827	March	1829
José Antonio Chaves	March	1827	April	1832
Santiago Abreu	April	1832	April	1833
Francisco Sarracino	April	1833	June	1835
Albino Pérez	June	1835	October	1837
Manuel Armijo	October	1837	April	1844
Mariano Martínez	April	1844	May	1845
José Chaves	May	1845	November	1845
Manuel Armijo	November	1845	August	1846

The overthrow of the Spanish colonial government in New Spain was followed by the creation of the national State of Mexico. New Mexico became one of the political subdivisions of the Mexican Republic. Its status changed with the alterations in the Government of Mexico, but the control of New Mexico continued to be in the hands of a small group of men. The principal change seems to have been the appointment of a native New Mexican as chief executive in a number of instances.

Immediately following the signing of the Treaty of Córdoba, August 24, 1821, between Iturbide and the last Spanish viceroy, elections were held for a provisional congress under the rules prescribed in the Spanish Constitution of 1812. The temporary government provided that all provincial officers should continue in control until their successors were chosen. Under this provision Governor Melgares held office until July, 1822. The constitutional congress of Mexico met February 4, 1822, and almost immediately came into conflict with Iturbide, who, in order to overcome the opposition of the congress, started a revolution in May to make himself emperor. Iturbide was crowned emperor with the consent of only a part of the congress, July 25, 1822. The election for the deputy from New Mexico to the constitutional congress and for the provincial assembly was held in

Santa Fe, January 29, 1822. Pérez Serrano was elected by the electoral council to represent New Mexico in the national congress. The members of the provincial assembly were Francisco Xavier Chaves, Juan Bautista Vigil, Juan Estevan Pino, José Manuel Martín, Manuel Rubí de Celis and Agapito Albo. Charges were brought against Governor Melgares in the summer of 1822 and upon his removal Francisco Xavier Chaves was placed in control, July, 1822.

Emperor Iturbide demanded that he should be allowed to exercise a veto over each provision of the constitution as it was adopted. To this control the constitutional congress objected and for that reason Iturbide dismissed the congress and appointed a committee of his friends to draw up the constitution. Before the overthrow of Iturbide, Antonio Vizcarra succeeded Chaves as governor, in November, 1822. The revolution against Iturbide was started by Antonio López de Santa Anna and other republicans demanding the calling of a constitutional convention and the establishment of a republic. The revolution began on February 1, 1823, and on February 19 Iturbide was forced to give up the control of the government.

Elections were held in the fall of 1823 for a second constitutional congress which met November 7, 1823. On September 15, 1823, a new provincial assembly for New Mexico was chosen, consisting of Antonio Ortiz, José Francisco Ortiz, Pedro Garciá, Pedro José Perea, Mariano de la Peña, José Garciá de la María and José Francisco Baca. Later, May 19, 1824, José Rafael Alarid was elected to represent New Mexico in the constitutional congress. The Constitution of 1824, draw up by the congress, was published on October 24 of that year. It provided for a federal state modeled after that of the United States. It was to consist of nineteen states and four territories, one of which was New Mexico. As a territory New Mexico was entitled to a delegate in the congress under the constitution. The territories were to be governed under laws passed by the congress, but that body failed to provide laws for governing territories. Bartolomé Baca was appointed governor of New Mexico in September of 1823 by the executive committee in control of the Mexican state after the overthrow of Iturbide.

The first territorial assembly of New Mexico was chosen May 15, 1825, by the electoral council as provided in the Spanish Constitution of 1812, since the Mexican congress had made no laws on elections. The members were Francisco Xavier Chaves, Francisco Ortiz, Juan Felipe Ortiz, Antonio Sandoval, Rafael Sarracino, Severino Martínez and Francisco Madariaga. The delegate to the Mexican congress under the new constitution from New Mexico, Santiago Abreu, was elected at the same time. New Mexico played no part in the establishment of Iturbide's empire nor in its overthrow, but readily accepted in each case the change in form of government. In September, 1825, Antonio Narbona became governor of New Mexico.

New Mexico's second territorial assembly was elected October 16, 1826. The members of this body were Antonio Ortiz, José Francisco Ortiz, Gregorio Ortiz, Francisco Baca, Pedro Ignacio Gallegos. Francisco Pérez Serrano and Francisco Sarracino. José Antonio Chaves was elected delegate to the Mexican congress. In May, 1827, Manuel Armijo was appointed by the Mexican Government to succeed Antonio Narbona as governor of New Mexico.

On December 3, 1828, the third territorial assembly was elected and consisted of Juan Felipe Ortiz, Juan Estevan Pino, Santiago Abreu, José Francisco Baca, Rafael Sarracino, José Francisco Leyva and Juan Antonio Cabesa de Baca. In October of the same year Manuel de Jesus Rada was elected to represent New Mexico in the Mexican congress.

In the fall elections in Mexico, under the Constitution of 1824, Gomez Pedraza received the vote of ten of the nineteen states, but the opposition assisted by Santa Anna raised a revolution and made Vicente Guerrero, president, and Anastasio Bustamante, vice president. The Guerrero government appointed Jose Antonio Chaves governor of New Mexico in March of 1829. A revolution against Guerrero headed by Bustamante and assisted by Santa Anna was started December 4, 1829, and resulted in placing Bustamante in control in the Mexican state. The New Mexico legislative assembly, January 30, 1830, declared in favor of the above revolution.

The fourth territorial assembly of New Mexico was elected on October 4, 1830. The members were Antonio Sandoval, Santiago Abreu, Juan Rafael Ortiz, José María Salazar, Antonio José Martínez, Julian Tenorio and Teodocio Quintana. The delegate of the national government elected at this time was Rafael Sarracino. The town councils of New Mexico endorsed a plan in March, 1831, for the changing of the government from that of a territory to a state, in the Mexican Republic. It was stated that the cost of the state government would be approximately 40,000 pesos and that this could be paid for out of the revenue accruing from the trade with the United States. The plan was presented to the territorial assembly, but that body took no action in the matter. No later attempt was made to change the status of New Mexico to that of a state in the Mexican Republic.

Santa Anna headed another revolution in January, 1832, against Anastasio Bustamante who resigned in September of that year. Santiago Abreu became governor of New Mexico in April, 1832. When the elections were held in Mexico in the fall of 1832 Santa Anna was made president and Gomez Farias, vice president. The congress was dominated by liberals and hostile to the army and the church and legislation was passed unfavorable to both.

The elections for the fifth territorial assembly which should have been held in October, 1832, were not held until March,

1833. The members chosen were Juan Antonio Cabesa de Baca, José Francisco Leyva, Manuel Antonio Baca, Ignacio Ortiz, José Andrés Sandoval, Juan Andrés Archuleta and Gregorio Sanchez. Ambrosio Armijo was elected delegate to the Mexican Congress in October, 1832, but the election was annuled and in February, 1833, Antonio Barreiro was chosen in his place. In April, 1833, Francisco Sarracino became governor of New Mexico.

Santa Anna realized the opposition to the reforms of the liberals. In June, 1833, Santa Anna marched at the head of his troops to put down the opposition. His troops immediately declared him dictator. On April 24, 1834, Santa Anna dissolved the congress, suspended the reforms passed by the recent congress and deposed many state officials and put in control those friendly to his dictatorship. The territorial assembly and the soldiers of the posts in New Mexico condemned the actions of the national congress and supported the overthrow of that body by Santa Anna.

The sixth and last territorial assembly of New Mexico was elected October 7, 1834. The members chosen were Juan Rafael Ortiz, Fernando Ortiz, Santiago Ulivarri, Rafael García, Francisco Sandoval, Francisco Ignacio Madariaga and Nerio Antonio Montoya. At the same time Antonio Barreiro was re-elected to the national congress.

The congress that met in Mexico January 4, 1835, was dominated by the military-clerical party. They determined to limit the control in the state to the middle and upper classes by a property qualification for voting. They also succeeded in changing the form of the government from a federal to a centralized republic eliminating the self-governing power of the states. By a parliamentary revolution a new constitution was drawn up and proclaimed December 30, 1836. Mexico was divided into twelve departments.

In New Mexico the provisional departmental council was chosen in November, 1835, the members of which were Juan Rafael Ortiz, Fernando Ortiz, Gregorio Ortiz, Rafael García and Jesus María Alarid. In June of the same year Albino Pérez arrived from Mexico to fill the office of governor of New Mexico. Under the new constitution the departmental councils were named by the retiring members or by the town council of the capital. The departmental councils had taken the place of the territorial assemblies in the fall of 1835, prior to the adoption of the constitution, December 30, 1836, which went into effect in New Mexico April 19, 1837, the same day that Anastasio Bustamante was elected president of Mexico.

The first departmental council under the Constitution of 1836 was chosen on May 2, 1837. It was composed of the following members: Juan Rafael Ortiz, Santiago Ulivarri, Pedro José Perea, Juan Estevan Pino, José Chaves, Antonio José Martinez and Francisco Ignacio de Madariaga. Juan Felipe Ortiz was elected deputy to the Mexican congress at this time. According to the new constitution each department was to be divided into districts consisting of several counties. Each district was to be headed by a prefect appointed by the governor. The prefect system in New Mexico dated from May 22, 1837.

The administration of Governor Pérez was unpopular with some of the leading New Mexicans, with the Mexican people and the Pueblo Indians, although supported by some of the old leaders. The causes for this discontent were: the direct taxes imposed under the new government; the governor's policy of requiring donations for schools; the demand made upon the people for aid in campaigns against the Navaho; and the fact that the governor was not a native New Mexican. The immediate cause for the revolt was the suspension and imprisonment of the *alcalde* of Cañada, Diego Esquibel by the prefect of the first district, Ramon Abreu. A crowd made up of Mexicans and Pueblo Indians gathered at Cañada and forced the release of Esquibel. On August 3, 1837 the insurrectionists issued a *plan* in which they condemned the departmental government and refused to pay any taxes. The Indians of the Pueblos north of San Felipe and the Mexicans immediately started for Santa Fe. Governor Pérez with difficulty organized a force of about 200 men who left Santa Fe August 7 to put down the uprising. They passed through Pojoaque and the following day met the enemy near the Mesa of San Ildefonso. Shortly after the meeting many of the forces of Pérez went over to the revolutionists and the remainder fled, some of whom were later killed near Santa Fe. Among those who lost their lives were Governor Pérez, Jesus María Alarid, Santiago Abreu, Ramon Abreu and Marcelino Abreu. The revolutionists occupied Santa Fe on August 9, confiscated the property of the deceased officers and chose José Gonzales, a Taos Indian, governor. On August 27 an assembly of the prominent revolutionists approved all of the measures thus far taken and appointed a committee to represent the cause of the revolutionary government in Mexico City.

The re-action against the revolutionists rapidly organized its forces. José Caballero, captain of the disbanded military forces in Santa Fe, issued a proclamation September 9 calling on the *alcaldes* of the Rio Abajo to organize a force for the overthrow of the rebels, stating that he would assemble 600 men in Santa Fe. In Tomé on the previous day a proclamation was issued declaring that the people of Rio Abajo, or the district of Albuquerque, would not recognize the revolutionary government; that a force be organized under Manuel Armijo and Mariano Chaves; that a message be sent to the commandant general in Chihuahua explaining the conditions; that the Pueblo Indians be in no way involved; and that all supplies for the army be paid for. Manuel Armijo was chosen military chief by the assembled forces at Bernalillo on September 12 and two days later was accepted by the officers in Santa Fe who were opposing the revolution. Armijo then marched north to Pojoaque where he met the revolutionists, but they fled at the first shot. Armijo then proceeded to Cañada which he occupied and a few days later returned to Santa Fe. On September 26 he issued a statement to the *alcaldes* relating the events which had forced him to assume control of the government. His purpose in so doing was to gain the support of these officials. The *alcalde* of Cañada on October 17 reported that the revolutionists were active at Las Truchas. Armijo upon departing for Albuquerque left orders for the execution of four prisoners, leaders of the insurrection, but Capt. José Caballero on the advice of a council of officers decided that he had no right to put the captives to death unless the revolutionists made an attack upon Santa Fe. When Armijo was informed of this action he condemned the decision of the military council, but did not order the execution of the prisoners.

The last phase of the insurrection occurred after the arrival of the troops from Chihuahua under the command of Col. Calletano Justiniani, January 12, 1838. An appeal to arms was issued by Antonio Vigil, of the rebels, on January 23, in the name of the people gathered at Santa Cruz de la Cañada. The four leaders who had been held in prison in Santa Fe since September were put to death on January 24. These were Desiderio Montoya, Antonio Montoya, José Esquibel and Juan Vigil. Armijo with the re-enforcements from Chihuahua marched against the insurgents January 27, defeating them at Pojoaque, where Antonio Vigil was killed. The last conflict of the uprising occurred at Cañada, resulting in a decisive defeat of the rebels and the capture and execution of the revolutionary governor, José Gonzales. Armijo received word from Mexico appointing him governor late in 1837.

During Armijo's second administration, 1837-1844, the Centralists in Mexico were attacked and finally overthrown. Little attention was paid by the central government to affairs in New Mexico. Armijo was able to attach a sufficient support to himself to prevent revolt. The opposition to the Centralists in Mexico gathered strength during 1841 and succeeded in overthrowing the government. Mariano Paredes and Santa Anna were the chief instigators. A council of leaders named Santa Anna provisional president and he immediately abolished the agents of the government that had been in operation under the Constitution of 1836. A congress which was called to draw up a new constitution met June 10, 1842, but this body refused to follow the will of Santa Anna. He retired from office leaving control in the hands of Nicolás Bravo and Valentín Canalizo. A year later, June 13, 1843, Bravo dissolved the congress and called together a council friendly to Santa Anna, which drew up a new fundamental law called the *Bases Organcias*, which created a constitutional government controlled by the president.

Santa Anna was elected president in 1844, but before the end of the year a revolution headed by Mariano Paredes overthrew Santa Anna, recalled the congress that had been dissolved, and placed José Joaquín Herrera in control on December 5, 1844. Early in the next year Santa Anna was captured and banished forever. The Herrera government was overthrown December 29, 1845, by Paredes, who became president in June, 1846.

During the period from 1837 to 1841 New Mexico was represented in Mexico by Juan Felipe Ortiz. The second departmental council for New Mexico was chosen January 2, 1839, and had for its members José Francisco Leyva, Vicente Otero, Blas Trujillo, Francisco Sandoval, Manuel Sanchez and Dolores Madrid. Diego Archuleta, October 22, 1843, was chosen deputy to the Mexican congress.

The departmental council chosen January 1, 1844, consisted of Felipe Sena, José Chaves, Manuel Gallegos, Mariano Chaves, Agustin Duran, Pablo Salazar and Santiago Martin. Mariano Martínez was made governor in April, 1844. His term was cut short by removal brought about as the result of charges filed against him. In May, 1845, José Chaves was made acting governor and shortly after the council of the department nominated five men for the position of governor, the first name on the list being that of Manuel Armijo. The Mexican government placed Armijo in control for his third term in November, 1845, and it lasted until the occupation of New Mexico by the army of the United States. Tomás Chaves was chosen to represent New Mexico in the Mexican Congress, October 4, 1845.

The last departmental council was selected January 1, 1846. The members of this body were: José Chaves, Manuel Gallegos, Tomás Ortiz, Antonio José Martinez, Juan Perea and Felipe Sena.

The assemblies of New Mexico advised the governors, made regulations for local government, re-organized the local subdivisions of the province several times, appealed to the central government for military protection, made a number of feeble efforts to establish schools, granted large areas of lands to towns and individuals, and made suggestions relative to changes in religious organization. The only income that the province had was from the tax placed on the trade from the United States over the Santa Fe trail, and this money was hardly sufficient to support a small military force. The absence of important internal developments in the Mexican period of New Mexico history is explained by the extreme poverty and ignorance of the vast majority of the people.

The exterior boundaries of New Mexico continued to be indefinate to the end of the Mexican period. The treaty of 1828 between Mexico and the United States fixed the boundary on the north and in July, 1824, the El Paso district, which had been a part of New Mexico since 1680 when the settlements were begun in that region, was annexed to Chihuahua, a new Mexican state, created out of the northern part of Nueva Vizcaya. The eastern boundary was the Pecos River and the western, the Colorado River. New Mexico was divided into four *partidos,* or counties, January 4, 1823. Each *partido* had a capital with a town council and an *alcalde mayor.* The other settlements of the county were governed either by town councils and *alcaldes,* or by *alcaldes.* The county of which Santa Fe was the capital included Pecos, Cochití, Jemez, and Alameda. Albuquerque was the capital of the county which included Isleta, Tomé Belen, Socorro and Laguna. Santa Cruz de la Cañada was the capital of the county containing San Juan, Abiquiu and Taos. El Paso was the capital of the El Paso district with control over Isleta del Sur and San Lorenzo del Real. The relative importance of the *partidos* is shown by the amounts apportioned to each in a tax levied March 23, 1823, amounting to 22,925 pesos, which was New Mexico's share of a levy of 6,000,000 pesos made by Iturbide. Santa Fe *partido* was instructed to raise 5,300 pesos; Albuquerque *partido,* 4,781 pesos; Santa Cruz de la Cañada, 8,574 pesos; and El Paso, 4,270 pesos. This would seem to prove that little was expected of New Mexico, that Santa Cruz de la Cañada was considered able to pay a much larger sum than the other *partidos*; and that Santa Fe, Albuquerque, and El Paso were about equal in wealth.

A new grouping of the political subdivisions of New Mexico was provided by the departmental council, May 22, 1837. The settlements were divided into two districts and each district into two *partidos,* or counties. It was at this time that the offices of *prefect* came into existence. The *prefect* was the chief official in each district. The first district which consisted of two *partidos* included the *alcaldías* of Bado, Santa Fe, San Ildefonso, Cañada, Abiquiu, Ojo Caliente, Sante Fe and Taos. The second district also consisted of two counties. One of the counties comprised the *alcaldías* of Cochiti, Jemez, Sandia, Albuquerque, and Isleta with Albuquerque as the capital; and the other *alcaldías* of Tomé, Valencia, Belen and Sabinal, of which Tomé was the capital.

The departmental council, June 17, 1844, re-organized the subdivisions of the province creating seven counties which were grouped in three districts, as follows: the northern district consisting of Taos and Rio Arriba Counties; the central district comprising Santa Fe, San Miguel and Santa Ana counties; and the southeastern district made up of Bernalillo and Valencia counties. These counties continued to be the political subdivision during the remaining years of the Mexican period and were continued in use after the occupation by the United States until the territorial government was organized in 1851, when the territorial legislative assembly changed the boundaries of the counties, but retained the names adopted in 1844.

The population of New Mexico increased during the Mexican period. In 1822 the population consisted of 30,000 Mexicans and 10,000 Pueblo Indians, in round numbers. The census of 1827 placed the population at 43,433, exclusive of Pueblo Indians. The number of people in the principal places at that time was as follows: Santa Fe, 5,759; San Miguel, 2,893; Abiquiu, 3,557; Albuquerque, 2,547; Tomé, 2,043; Cañada, 6,508; San Juan, 2,915; Taos, 3,606. The total number of people in 1833 was placed at 57,176; in 1840, at 55,403; and in 1844, at 99,204; and in 1845, at 67,736. The 1844 report gave the census by counties, as follows: Santa Fe, 12,500; Santa Ana, 10,500; San Miguel, 18,800; Río Arriba, 15,000; Taos, 14,200; Valencia, 20,000; and Bernalillo, 8,204.

The efforts made by the local authorities to establish public schools were not successful on account of the poverty of the people and the government of New Mexico. Voluntary subscriptions were asked for by Governor Baca in July, 1825, for the purpose of establishing schools which were to be open to all. On the basis of the contributions schools were established at Santa Fe, Albuquerque, Cañada and Bernalillo. Father Antonio José Martínez started a school in 1826 in his house in Taos. On May 19, 1826, a college was opened under control of the church, Friar Sebastian Alvarez having been appointed rector by the legislative assembly. In June, 1832, there were schools at Santa Fe, Bado, Cañada, Taos, Albuquerque and Belen. The salaries of the teachers were as follows: Santa Fe, 500 pesos; Cañada, 300; Albuquerque, 300; San Miguel, 250; Taos, 250; and Belen, 250. Antonio Barreiro stated that nothing was better supported than the schools, and that nothing was in worse shape. He accounted for this condition by stating that there were no capable teachers in the territory. The public schools were closed in October, 1834, due to the lack of funds. The school fund had 200 pesos in the treasury and a credit of 500 pesos due from Bartolomé Baca to whom the tithes had been farmed. On account of action taken by the Mexican government the use of a part of the tithes for school purposes came to an end in July, 1833. It was hoped that the visit of the Bishop of Durango in 1833 would result in fostering schools, but that dignitary was not able to render any assistance. When the public schools were closed the opening of private schools was authorized. Governor Pérez in 1836 tried to put into force a system of public primary education in Santa Fe, but did not succeed, due to the poverty of the people and the lack of interest in the schools existing among the people. The plan which was approved by the town council of Santa Fe, August 12, 1836, provided that schools should be established and supported by the parents for all children between the ages of five and twelve and that children over twelve should become apprentices. Those who refused to attend schools were to be considered vagrants. In the winter of 1836-37 there was a private school at Bernalillo taught by José Gutiérrez. The following winter Antonio Sena conducted a private school in Santa Fe.

The first printing press was brought to New Mexico by Antonio Barreiro in the summer of 1834. A small sheet was published by him with the assistance of Jesús María Baca, a printer, who had come with Barriero from Mexico. The press was sold to Ramon Abreu who owned it in the summer of 1835 when it was sold to Father Antonio José Martínez, of Taos, who published four numbers of a weekly sheet called *El Crepúsculo*. In the fall of 1843 the printing press was operated by Donaciano Vigil. He published a weekly called *La Verdad*. The last reference to an issue of this publication was in January, 1845. Governor José Chaves purchased the press in June, 1845. On June 2 it was proposed in the departmental council that the governor publish at government expense an official periodical for the department. The new publication was first issued June 28, 1845, and called *El Rayo de Nuevo Méjico*.

Mining in New Mexico increased during the Mexican period. The mining of copper at the Santa Rita del Cobre Grant was carried on by Americans under lease from the heirs of Francisco Manuel Elguea of Chihuahua who held the title to the grant until 1873. In 1825 the mine was worked by Sylvester and James Ohio Pattie who agreed to pay $1,000 a year for the right. They appear to have continued their operations until 1827. It is recorded that the Patties planned to buy the mine and sent $30,000 to the owners by an agent who disappeared with the money. In 1828 a Frenchman named Coursier who lived in Chihuahua was running the mine. Due to Indian difficulties work stopped. Robert McKnight operated the mine from 1832 until 1836. The last owner during the Mexican period was Leonardo Pesquieros who took control of the mine in 1840 and continued to work it until late in the fifties. The period of large production of the Santa Rita Copper Mines did not come until after the advent of the railroads.

A more important immediate mining development consisted of the discovery of the Old Placers in 1828 near Dolores, the New Placers in 1839 near Tuerto, five miles south of the Old Placers, and the Ortiz mine in 1833, which was a gold quartz mine. These mines were located in the mountains between Galisteo Creek and San Pedro Creek, east of the Rio Grande about twenty-five miles north of Albuquerque. The placer mines, it is said, produced between $40,000 and $50,000 for a number of years after 1832. The center for the New Placers was the town of Tuerto, which in 1845 was a thriving mining town containing twenty-two stores. The Ortiz quartz mine was not successfully worked during the Mexican period.

The Navaho Indians were continually raiding the Rio Grande settlements during the Mexican period. During the winter of 1822 and 1823 Antonio Vizcarra conducted a campaign against the Navaho who had been making attacks upon the river towns from the Sandia Mountains. Another campaign against the Navaho was begun, June 17, 1823, by Antonio Vizcarra. A council was called in Santa Fe on October 21, 1823, to determine whether peace should be made with the Navaho. It was decided to make peace, but the agreement was not kept for the Indians attacked Jemez during the following winter. In 1824 New Mexico received on request 6,000 pesos for the Indian fund from the Mexican government which was used for presenting gifts to the Indians. The Navaho and Apache in the summer of 1833 made attacks on Laguna and Jemez. Josiah Gregg stated that between 1833 and 1843 the Navaho ravaged the country with little danger to themselves.

The support of the military force consumed a large part of the revenues of the province, but the troops were not successful in preventing Indian raids. A bill was passed by the Mexican congress, May 31, 1826, providing for four cavalry companies in New Mexico, but they were not organized. The territorial assembly at this time created two military companies: one at Albuquerque, the other at Santa Fe. In November, 1830, the territorial assembly asked that the military companies authorized by the law of 1826 be formed. During the year ending July, 1833, 26,917 pesos were spent for the support of military posts at Santa Fe and San Miguel del Bado. The paid military force of 1836 consisted of three troops: one at Santa Fe, one at Taos and another at San Miguel del Bado. A powder factory was established at this time at Santa Fe. The following year the military forces were disbanded on account of the lack of funds to pay them. In military matters New Mexico was subordinate to Chihuahua from 1835 until April 22, 1839, when the department of New Mexico was raised to a *commandancia general.* The total force in New Mexico in 1844 consisted of five companies at an annual cost of 54,608 pesos, however, the companies were seldom full and rarely paid.

The New Mexico missions declined when the funds that had been supplied by the Spanish Government were ended by the independence of Mexico. The reports during the period state that the churches were poorly furnished and badly in need of repairs. It was also stated that there were no funds for the support of the missions. The secularization of the missions began in 1826. Father Antonio José Martínez, July, 1824, asked the territorial assembly to secularize the Taos Mission. The assembly made a report, August 1824, to the Bishop of Durango asking that the missions at Taos, Abiquiu, Belen, San Juan and San Miguel del Bado, be secularized. The vicar-general, Augustin Vicente, visited New Mexico early in 1826. He stated that the regular clergy were insubordinate in matters of carrying out the bishop's orders. The assembly made the complaint that the missions had not been secularized as they had suggested. Before the end of 1836 the missions mentioned above had been taken from the Franciscans and placed under parish priests.

The tithes in 1830 were rented to Bartolomé Baca for 10,000 pesos. In 1832 Barreiro recommended the secularization of those missions that remained under the Franciscans. In the fall of 1833 Bishop Zubiria, from Durango, visited the territory. The right to confirm persons was given to three priests at this time. The Mexican congress, April 16, 1834, passed a law requiring the secularization of all missions within a period of four months. Following the Revolt of 1837, Juan Rafael Rascon was made vicar-general of the department. As in the case of schools, poverty explained the condition of the churches and the missions at the end of the Mexican period.

NEW MEXICO UNDER SPAIN AND MEXICO, 1528-1846 BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHIES AND COLLECTIONS OF DOCUMENTS

Bandelier, A. F. "The Bandelier Collection of Copies of Documents relative to the History of Arizona and New Mexico." (Serial 3322, Doc. 100.) Wash., D. C., 1895.
Bolton, H. E. *Guide to Materials for the History of the United States in the Principal Archives of Mexico.* Wash., D. C., 1913.
"Catalogue of Books in English in the Library of the Society. * * *" Historical Society of New Mexico. *Publication.* No. 15. Santa Fe, 1915.
Documentos para la Historia de Mexico. 20 vols. Mexico, 1853-1857.
Hackett, C. W. *Historical Documents relating to New Mexico.* * * * Wash., D. C., 1923.
Pacheco, J. F., and Cárdenas, Francisco de. *Colleción de Documentos Inéditos.* 42 vols. Madrid, 1864-1884.
Twitchell, R. E. *The Spanish Archives of New Mexico.* 2 vols. Cedar Rapids, Iowa, 1914.

BOOKS AND MAGAZINE ARTICLES, INCLUDING GENERAL WORKS AND ACCOUNTS OF INDIVIDUAL SUBJECTS

Allison, W. H. "Colonel Francisco Perea." *Old Santa Fe.* I. (1913-14), 210-22.
---------- ------ "Santa Fe during the winter of 1837-1838." *Old Santa Fe.* II. (1914-15), 170-83.
---------- ------ "Santa Fe in 1846." *Old Santa Fe.* II. (1914-15), 392-406.
Anderson, George B., ed. *History of New Mexico.* 2 vols. Los Angeles, 1907.
Bancroft, H. H. *History of Arizona and New Mexico.* San Francisco, 1889.
Bandelier, A. F. "Contributions to the History of the Southwestern Portion of the United States." Archaeological Institute of America. *Papers: American Series.* V. Boston, 1890.

__________ ______ "Documentary History of the Rio Grande Pueblos of New Mexico. * * *" School of American Archaeology. *Papers.* No. 13. n. p. 1910.

__________ ______ "Final Report of Investigations among the Indians of the Southwestern United States. * * *" Archaeological Institute of America. *Papers: American Series.* III, IV. 2 vols. Boston, 1890.

__________ ______ *The Journey of Alvar Nuñez Cabeza de Vaca.* New York, 1905.

Barreiro, Antonio. *Ojeada sobre Nuevo Mejico.* Puebla, Mexico, 1832.

Benavides, Alonso de. *The Memorial of Fray Alonso de Benavides, 1630.* Tr. by Mrs. E. E. Ayer. Annotated by F. W. Hodge and C. F. Lummis. Chicago, 1916.

Binkley, W. C. "New Mexico and the Texan Santa Fe Expedition." *The Southwestern Historical Quarterly.* XXVII (1923) 85-107.

__________ ______ "The Last Stage of the Texan Military Operations Against Mexico, 1843." *The Southwestern Historical Quarterly.* XXII. (1919), 260-71.

Blackmar, F. W. *Spanish Institutions of the Southwest.* Baltimore, 1891.

Bloom, L. B. "New Mexico under Mexican Administration, 1821-1846." *Old Santa Fe.* I. (1913-14), 3-49; 131-75; 235-87; 347-68: II. (1914-15), 3-56; 119-69; 223-77; 351-99.

Bolton, H. E. *Athanase de Mézières and the Louisiana-Texas Frontier, 1768-1780.* 2 vols. Cleveland, 1914.

__________ ______ "Early Explorations of Father Garcés on the Pacific Slope." *The Pacific Ocean in History.* Ed., H. M. Stephens and H. E. Bolton. New York, 1917.

__________ ______ *Kino's Historical Memoir of Pimería Alta.* 2 vols. Cleveland, 1919.

__________ ______ *Spanish Exploration in the Southwest, 1542-1706.* New York, 1916.

Bolton, H. E., and T. M. Marshall. *The Colonization of North America, 1492-1783.* New York, 1920.

Bradley, G. D. *Winning the Southwest.* Chicago, 1912.

__________ ______ "Famous Landmarks Along the Trail." *Santa Fe Magazine.* VI. (Sept., 1912), 25-30.

Burton, E. B. "Texas Raiders in New Mexico in 1843." *Old Santa Fe.* (1914-15), 302-308; 407-29.

Chittenden, H. M. *American Fur Trade of the Far West.* 3 vols. New York, 1902.

Coues, Elliot, ed. *The Expedition of Zebulon Montgomery Pike * * * During the Years 1805, 1806, 1807.* 3 vols. New York, 1905.

__________ ______ *The Journal of Jacob Fowler * * ** New York, 1898.

---------- ------ *On the Trail of a Spanish Pioneer* * * *. 2 vols. New York, 1900.

Davenport, Harbert, and J. K. Wells. "The First Europeans in Texas, 1528-1536." *The Southwestern Historical Quarterly.* XXII. (1918), 111-42; 205-60.

Davis, W. W. H. *Spanish Conquest of New Mexico.* Doylestown, Pa., 1869.

"Early Commerce with Santa Fe." *Santa Fe Magazine,* IV. (May, 1910), 29-32.

Goodwin, Cardinal. *The Trans-Mississippi West, 1803-1853.* New York, 1922.

---------- ------ "John H. Fonda's Explorations in the Southwest." *Southwestern Historical Quarterly.* XXIII. (1919), 39-46.

Gregg, Josiah. *Commerce of the Prairies.* New York, 1845.

Hackett, C. W. "Location of the Tigua Pueblos of Alameda, Puaray and Sandia in 1680-1681." *Old Santa Fe.* II. (1914-15), 381-91.

---------- ------ "Otermin's Attempt to Reconquer New Mexico, 1681-1682." *Old Santa Fe.* III. (1916), 44-84.

---------- ------ "Retreat of the Spaniards from New Mexico in 1680 * * *." *The Southwestern Historical Quarterly.* XVI. (1912), 137-68; 259-76.

---------- ------ 'The Revolt of the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico in 1680." Texas State Historical Association. *The Quarterly.* XV. (1911-12), 93-147.

Hill, J. J. "The Old Spanish Trail." *Hispanic American Historical Review.* IV. (1921), 444-73.

---------- ------ "Ewing Young in the Fur Trade of the Far Southwest, 1822-1834." *Oregon Historical Quarterly.* XXIV. (1923), 1-34.

Hodge, F. W. *Bibliography of Fray Alonso de Benavides.* New York, 1919.

---------- ------ and T. H. Lewis, ed. *Spanish Explorers in the Southern United States, 1528-1543.* New York, 1907.

Hughes, A. E. *Beginning of Spanish Settlement in the El Paso District.* Berkeley, Cal., 1914.

Hull, Dorothy. "Costaño de Sosa's Expedition to New Mexico in 1590." *Old Santa Fe.* III. (1916), 307-32.

Hurd, C. W. "Origin and Development of the Santa Fe Trail." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XV. (Sept., 1921), 17-27.

Inman, Henry. *The Old Santa Fe Trail* * * *. Topeka, Kansas, 1899.

Johnson, W. H. *Pioneer Spaniards in North America.* Boston, 1903.

Kendall, G. W. *Narrative of the Texan Santa Fe Expedition* * * *. 2 vols. New York, 1844.

Ladd, H. O. *Story of New Mexico.* Boston, 1891.

Lummis, C. F. *Some Strange Corners of Our Country.* New York, 1906.

---------- -- -- *Spanish Pioneers in the Southwest.* Chicago, 1893.

Marshall, T. M. "Commercial Aspects of the Texan Santa Fe Expedition." *The Southwestern Historical Quarterly.* XX. (1917), 242-59.

---------- -- -- *A History of the Western Boundary of the Louisiana Purchase, 1819-1841.* Berkley, Cal., 1914.

---------- -- -- "St. Vrain's Expedition to the Gila in 1826." *The Southwestern Historical Quarterly.* XIX. (1916), 251-60.

Monroe, James. "Message * * * Relative to the Imprisonment of Certain American Citizens at Santa Fe * * * in 1811-1817." *Old Santa Fe.* I. (1913-14), 369-85.

Pattie, J. O. "Pattie's Personal Narrative." *Early Western Travels, 1748-1846.* Ed. by R. G. Thwaites. Vol. 18. Cleveland, 1905.

Pino, P. B. *Exposicion Sucinta.* Cadiz, Spain, 1812.

Priestley, H. I. *The Mexican Nation, a History.* New York, 1923.

Prince, L. B. *A Concise History of New Mexico.* Cedar Rapids, Iowa, 1912.

---------- -- -- *Historical Sketches of New Mexico* * * *. Kansas City, 1883.

---------- -- -- *Spanish Mission Churches of New Mexico.* Cedar Rapids, Iowa, 1915.

Read, B. M. *Chronological Digest of the "Documentos Ineditos del Archivo de las Indias."* Albuquerque, N. M., 1914.

---------- -- -- *Illustrated History of New Mexico.* Santa Fe, 1912.

Reynolds, M. G. *Spanish and Mexican Land Laws.* St. Louis, 1895.

Storms, W. W. *The Story of New Mexico* * * *. Terre Haute, Ind., 1897.

Thoma, Francisco de. *Historia Popular de Nuevo Mexico.* New York, 1896.

Twitchell, R. E. *The Leading Facts of New Mexican History.* 5 vols. Cedar Rapids, Iowa, 1911-1917.

---------- -- -- "Colonel Juan Bautista de Anza * * *." Historical Society of New Mexico. *Publication.* No. 21. Santa Fe, 1918.

---------- -- -- "Spanish Colonization in New Mexico * * *." Historical Society of New Mexico. *Publication.* No. 22. Santa Fe, 1919.

---------- -- -- "The Pueblo Revolt of 1696 * * *." *Old Santa Fe.* III. (1916), 332-73.

Vargas, Diego de. "The Justification of General Don Diego de Vargas." *Old Santa Fe.* II. (1914-15), 57-65.

---------- ------ -- "The Last Campaign of General de Vargas, 1704." *Old Santa Fe.* II. (1914-15), 66-72.

---------- ------ -- "The Reconquest of New Mexico, 1692." *Old Santa Fe.* I. (1913-14), 288-307; 420-435.

Vaughan, John. *History and Government of New Mexico.* State College, N. M., 1921.

Vetancur, Augustín. *Chrónica de la Provincia del Santo Evangelio de Mexico.* Mexico, 1697.

---------- ------ *Monologio Franciscano.* Reprinted in Mexico, 1871.

Villagrá, Gaspar de. *Historia de la Nuevo Mexico.* Alcalá, Spain, 1610.

Villaseñor, J. A. *Teatro Americano.* 2 vols. Mexico, 1746.

Winship, G. P. "The Coronado Expedition, 1540-1542." (Serial 3531, Doc. 230.)

---------- -- -- The Journey of Coronado. New York, 1914.

CHAPTER XIX

NEW MEXICO UNDER UNITED STATES MILITARY GOVERNMENT, 1846-1851

The supreme authority from the occupation of New Mexico, August 18, 1846, until the organization of the Territorial government March 3, 1851, was vested in the senior military officer. However, during the early part of the period there was also a civil governor, but any action by him was subject to the approval of the military officer. After October 11, 1848 the offices of civil and military governor were combined in the hands of the ranking military officer. The following men were governors during the period:

Stephen Watts Kearny, military governor, Aug. 18, 1846-Sept. 22, 1846.

Sterling Price, military governor, Sept. 22, 1846-Oct. 11, 1848.

Charles Bent, civil governor, Sept. 22, 1846-Jan. 19, 1847.

Donaciano Vigil, acting civil governor, Jan. 19, 1847-Dec. 17, 1847.

Donaciano Vigil, civil governor, Dec. 17, 1847-Oct. 11, 1848.

John M. Washington, civil and military governor, Oct. 11, 1848-Oct. 23, 1849.

John Munroe, civil and military governor, Oct. 23, 1849-March 3, 1851.

The acquisition and political organization of the western part of the United States was brought about between 1845 and 1848. The resolution providing for the annexation of Texas was signed by the President of the United States, December 29, 1845. The treaty with Great Britain which settled the "Oregon Question" by fixing the boundary at the forty-ninth parallel of latitude from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Coast was ratified by the Senate on June 18, 1846. The treaty with Mexico which provided for the Mexican Cession was proclaimed at Washington, D. C., July 4, 1848. With the exception of Texas, all of the area lying west of the Louisiana Purchase region was ruled by temporary governments for several years immediately following acquisition by the United States. Oregon from 1846 until 1849 continued under the provisional government that settlers had established in 1842 and revised in 1845. Utah from 1847 until 1851 was ruled by a government set up by the Mormons. California was under military rule from 1847 until 1850. New Mexico had a military government from 1846 until 1851, when the territorial government was organized. The organization of the new governments in the Mexican Cession by Congress was agreed upon September 9, 1850. Two large states, Texas and California, and three territories, Oregon, Utah and New Mexico, which were later divided before becoming states, were created between 1845 and 1850. The average size of these five units of political organization was 230,000 square miles.

The extension of the United States control over Texas, Oregon and the Mexican Cession resulted from the steady westward movement of the population, which was accelerated by the beginnings of industrialization in the United States early in the nineteenth century. When the United States government decided to annex the Republic of Texas, which had been recognized as an independent state by England and France, but not by Mexico, the latter country declared war. The United States in June, 1846, accepted the forty-ninth parallel as the northern boundary in the controversy with Great Britain, thus gaining control of the region between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific from the forty-ninth to the forty-second parallel. The Texas Republic claimed that the Rio Grande from mouth to source was its western boundary. Therefore, the eastern half of New Mexico was considered as annexed by the annexation of Texas. At the end of the Mexican War, the United States demanded the cession of all lands of Mexico north of the Gila with the extension from the source to the Rio Grande and from the mouth of the Gila to the Pacific Coast. Thus the Rocky Mountain and the Pacific Coast country from the forty-ninth to the thirty-second parallel became a part of the United States.

The occupation of New Mexico was carried out as a part of the plans of the United States to defeat Mexico. The Army of the West, which was organized at Fort Leavenworth, near the present Kansas City, was ordered to occupy New Mexico and California, and if advisable a part of the force was to be sent southward to Chihuahua to co-operate with Generals Wool and Taylor. The army was placed under Col. Stephen Watts Kearny, who was made a brigadier-general early in the campaign. The command, consisting of 1,558 men and sixteen field pieces, was made up principally of volunteers who enlisted on the call of Governor Edwards of Missouri. The regular army force consisted of 300 dragoons. The volunteer force was made up of the First Regiment of Missouri Cavalary, under Col. A. W. Doniphan; two companies of infantry and two companies of artillery. This force left Fort Leavenworth in the latter part of June, 1846, and arrived in the vicinity of Bent's Fort, on the Arkansas, in the present state of Colorado, on July 31. A reserve force of volunteers was also organized and dispatched across the plains. It comprised the Second Regiment of Missouri Mounted Volunteers, under Col. Sterling Price, and a battalion of Mormons, numbering 500, who had enlisted with the understanding that they were to be discharged in California. The entire reenforcements numbered about 1,700 men. They left Fort

Leavenworth in the early part of August and arrived in Santa Fe on October 1, after Kearny had left for California.

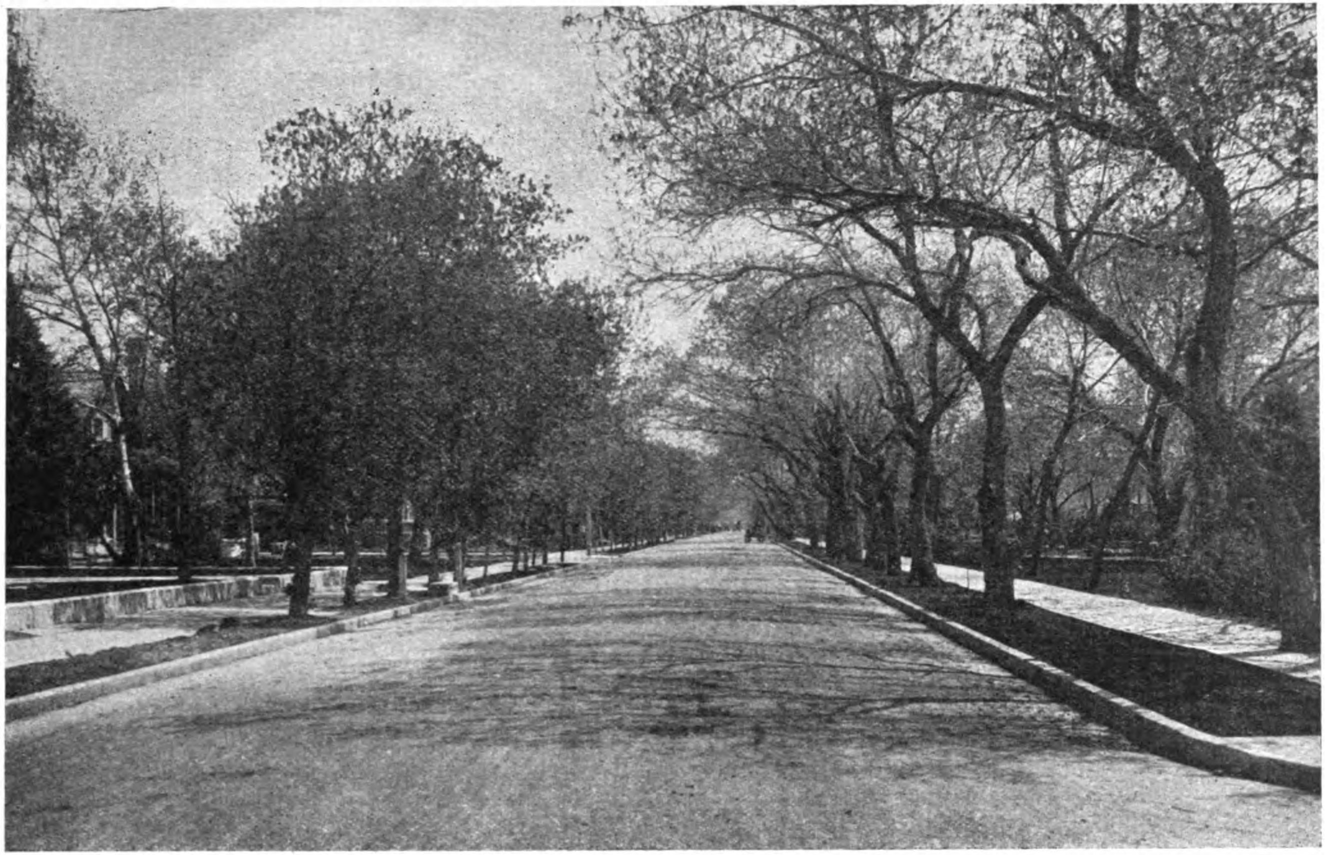
Two advance parties were sent by Kearny into New Mexico before the army left the Arkansas; the one to Taos, and the other to Santa Fe. Lieutenant De Courcey and twenty men went to Taos to determine the attitude of the people toward occupation of the country by the United States. The lieutenant and his detachment rejoined the main command on August 11 at Poñil, three days' march north of Las Vegas. Capt. St. George Cook, with a party which included James Magoffin, arrived in Santa Fe on August 12. Kearny's first proclamation had been issued July 31. This had been received in Santa Fe before the arrival of Cooke and Magoffin. In this document it was stated that the country east of the Rio Grande would be occupied as a part of the Republic of Texas, which had become the State of Texas, and that all the people who were peaceful would not be disturbed, while those who took up arms would be treated as enemies. An appeal to the New Mexicans was issued by Governor Armijo on August 8, calling upon the people to defend their country against the invader. Kearny, on August 13, was informed that the New Mexican forces were planning on making a stand at Apache Canyon and advised to turn the position by advancing by way of the Galisteo Valley. A message from Armijo was received by Kearny on the following day, in which it was stated that he and the people would defend the country, suggesting that the forces of the United States halt at the Sapello River. Kearny, however, continued to advance, entering Las Vegas on the morning of August 15.

From the top of one of the flat-roofed adobe buildings facing the plaza in Las Vegas, Kearny pronounced his first oral statement to the people of New Mexico. He told them that the United States had taken possession of New Mexico and that he was their governor; that he would not expect them to assist in overcoming any opposition that other New Mexicans might offer; that those who remained quiet would be protected in all their rights; and that the government would protect them from the nomadic Indians. Kearny then marched to Tecolote and San Miguel, where the above pronouncement was repeated. At the deserted Pueblo of Pecos, Kearny received word that the Mexican army of 2,000 men which had assembled at Apache Canyon had dispersed, General Armijo having abandoned the volunteer forces, and having himself fled southward, accompanied by the regular force and taking with him the artillery. When Armijo reached the vicinity of Durango he met George F. Ruxten, an English traveler, who talked with Armijo, telling him that the New Mexicans were looked upon as cowards for not having attempted to defend the country. Armijo replied that his critics did not know that he had but seventy-five men to oppose 3,000. Kearny marched into Santa Fe during the late afternoon of

August 18 and took possession of the capital of New Mexico without having struck a blow.

The part that James Magoffin took in bringing about the conquest of New Mexico without a battle is given by himself in the following words: "I went ahead of General Kearny and secured his unopposed march into Santa Fe." Magoffin had been engaged in trade between Missouri, Santa Fe, and Chihuahua for more than fifteen years. Senator Thomas Benton suggested to President Polk that Magoffin might be of use to the expedition in bringing about the occupation of New Mexico and Chihuahua. On June 18, 1846, Magoffin was commended to General Kearny by the Secretary of War as one who might render valuable services to the Army of the West. Magoffin joined the Army of the West at Bent's Ford, and on August 2 went to Santa Fe, in company with Capt. St. George Cooke and his party. At Santa Fe interviews were held with Governor Armijo and Col. Diego Archuleta, who was second in command. Whether Armijo would have made a stand at Apache Canyon had Magoffin not talked with him can not be determined. It is evident that Archuleta and some of the leaders were told that Kearny would occupy only the lands claimed by Texas, that is, the area east of the Rio Grande, and that these men considered that they had been betrayed, by this false promise, into submission. It is believed that the revolts planned in December of 1846 and January, 1847, were fostered by these discontented leaders.

Kearny remained in New Mexico from August 18 until September 25, when he departed for California. Acting Governor Juan Bautista Vigil had sent a message to Kearny, announcing the flight of Governor Armijo on August 18, before the arrival of the Army of the West in Santa Fe. On the morning following the occupation of the capital and the raising of the American flag, the people assembled in the plaza and speeches were made by General Kearny and Juan Bautista Vigil. The former stated, in the course of his remarks, that the people of New Mexico had become citizens of the United States. In this he had overstepped his authority. He further informed the people that all personal and property rights would be protected. Vigil, in his reply to Kearny's remarks, pointed out that the power of the United States had placed New Mexico in its control and that it was the duty of all to obey the established authorities. In the name of New Mexico, as its chief officer, he took the oath of obedience to the United States. A few days later, August 22, Kearny issued an official proclamation concerning the conquest. In this document he announced his intention of holding all of New Mexico, designating it as the Territory of New Mexico of the United States. If Kearny thought that he could create citizens and a territory, he was mistaken. Exception was later taken to his action in these matters and formally disavowed by President Polk. It seems clear that Kearny had said more than he had intended, for later in the proclamation he ordered that the



RESIDENCE SECTION, ALBUQUERQUE

existing laws and government, with modifications, should continue until the United States should provide a government.

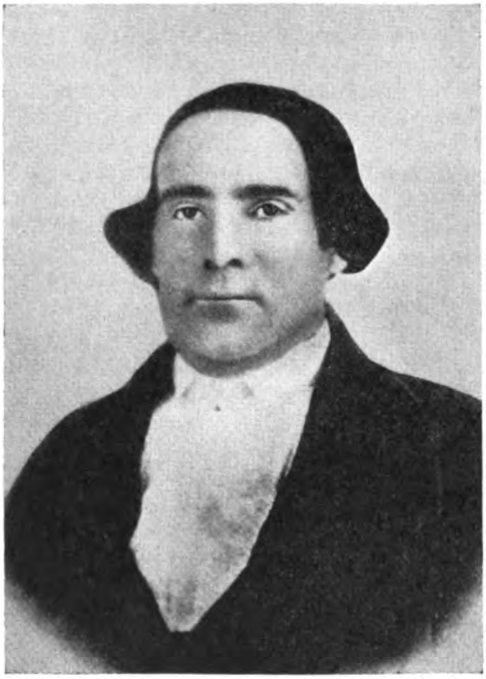
The site for the fort at Santa Fe was selected by Lieutenant Emory, and the construction work was started a few days later, August 23. It was built of adobe on a height 150 feet above the level of the plaza, and 600 yards from it. The fortification was completed in the latter part of September. It was named Fort Marcy by General Kearny in honor of the Secretary of War.

Leaving Colonel Doniphan in charge at Santa Fe, General Kearny, with 725 men, departed on September 2 for a short trip down the Rio Grande, to examine the conditions in the part of New Mexico which was called the Rio Abajo. The command passed southward to Santo Domingo by way of the Galisteo Valley, and down the valley as far as Tomé, which was reached on September 7. The army returned to Santa Fe by the same route, arriving there September 11.

Eleven days later, September 22, General Kearny issued a set of laws arranged alphabetically under subjects which was called *The Kearny Code of Laws.* The code was drawn as a temporary measure, but the First Legislative Assembly of the Territory in 1851 passed an act providing that all parts of the Code should remain in force except those parts contrary to the laws of the United States, or of the Territory. In a few instances the New Mexico Code of 1915 refers to the Kearny Code as the source of authority for provisions in the law. The laws were compiled by Willard P. Hall, under the direction of Col. A. W. Doniphan, and translated into Spanish by Dr. David Waldo. They were taken from the laws of Mexico, Coahuila, Texas, Missouri and the Livingston Code. Among the subjects treated the following may be named as giving some idea of the nature of the compilation: Attachments, courts and judicial powers, costs, crimes and punishments, executions, fees, guardians, jurors, laws, practice at law, records, revenue, sheriffs, treasury, and witnesses. On the same day Kearny appointed officers to carry the law into effect. The following officers were chosen: Charles Bent, governor; Donaciano Vigil, secretary; Richard Dallam, marshal; Francis Blair, Jr., United States attorney; Charles Blumner, treasurer; Eugene Leitensdorfer, auditor; Joab Houghton, Charles Beaubien, and Antonio José Otero, judges of the district courts. The chief executive officers in the counties were the prefects. The first appointment on record to this office in each of the seven counties was as follows: L. F. Thurston, Santa Fe County, appointed August 18, 1846; Francisco Sandoval, Santa Ana County, December 1, 1846; M. A. Baca, San Miguel County, December 1, 1846; Salvador Lucero, Rio Arriba County, December 1, 1846; Cornelio Vigil, Taos County, December 1, 1846; Francisco Sarracino, Bernalillo County, September 22, 1846; J. M. Sanchez, Valencia County, July 16, 1847.

Alcaldes were also appointed in the settlements of the various counties. In this manner the first government of New Mexico under the United States was organized. It was a military government, for the supreme power was vested in the senior officer of the United States troops.

The new government having been established, General Kearny made arrangements, September 24, for his march by way of the Gila Valley to Southern California. He ordered that the 300 dragoons of the regular army should accompany him and that they should be followed by the Mormon Battalion, which had not arrived at Santa Fe, but which was a part of Sterling Price's re-enforcements, under Capt. St. George Cooke. The chief command at Santa Fe was given to Col. A. W. Doniphan, who was ordered to remain with the First Regiment of Missouri Mounted Volunteers in Santa Fe until the arrival of the Second Regiment, under Col. Sterling Price. Doniphan and his regiment were to advance on Chihuahua, accompanied by one of the batteries of artillery under Captain Weightman. The infantry battalion and the other battery of artillery were ordered to remain in New Mexico.



DONACIANO VIGIL, CIVIL GOVERNOR, 1847-1848

Prior to the above arrangement, about September 15, two detachments had been sent westward to protect the outlying settlements; the one, under Major Gilpin, went up the Chama Valley to Abiquiu; and the other, under Lieutenant-Colonel Jackson, went by way of Laguna to Cebolleta, fifty miles west of Albuquerque. After leaving Santa Fe, September 25, and after having received word of the arrival in Santa Fe of the re-enforcements under Sterling Price, October 2, General Kearny sent order to Doniphan instructing him to make a campaign into the Navaho country. Doniphan left Santa Fe on October 26, marching southward with his entire command. In the vicinity of Albuquerque he divided his force, sending a part of the troops southward along the main road toward El Paso. This command, under Captain Walten, arrived at Valverde, south of Socorro, on November 24. Colonel Doniphan, with a small force, went west to Cubero, where they joined Jackson's command, November 15. Jackson, and Gilpin farther north, had been busy attempting to bring about peace with the Navaho Indians. Jackson and Doniphan marched northwestward into the upper part of the San Juan Basin, where they joined forces with Gilpin on November 21, 1846. On the following day a treaty was signed at Ojo de Oso, in the vicinity of what was later Fort Defiance. There were present 200 U. S. soldiers and 500 Navaho Indians. This treaty provided for peace between the Navaho and the people of the Rio Grande Valley, for restoration of all captives and stolen property taken since the beginning of the American occupation of New Mexico, and peaceful trade relations. The forces of Doniphan then started for Valverde by way of Zuñi, where Doniphan persuaded the Navaho and the Zuñi to make peace, November 26. When Doniphan's party arrived at Valverde it was joined by a detachment sent from Santa Fe by Colonel Price. The entire force which left Valverde, on December 19, consisted of about 900 men. Reports had already been received that the Mexicans were preparing to give battle at El Paso. The army passed the Jornado del Muerto, the most difficult desert road between Missouri and Chihuahua, and arrived at Doña Ana, December 22.

Three days later, on Christmas afternoon, Doniphan's command was in camp on the east side of the Rio Grande, a few miles south of the present town of Las Cruces. Here he received reports that a Mexican force was advancing from the direction of El Paso. The Mexican army consisted of regulars to the number of about 600, and 500 of the El Paso militia. The Mexican general, Ponce de Leon, sent a messenger to Doniphan demanding his appearance at the general's headquarters. This order was not obeyed by Doniphan and the Mexicans attacked. The conflict which followed is known as the Battle of Brazito. The army of the United States waited for the advance until it was close enough for their fire to be deadly and then opened the defense. As a result the Mexican army was thrown into confusion, fleeing southward so completely disorganized that no attempt was made to prevent the entrance of the United States forces into El Paso, December 28, 1846. Doniphan remained in El Paso until February 8, 1847, when he began his march southward to Chihuahua City, after having received some artillery re-enforcements from Santa Fe.

General Kearny, October 5, before leaving the Rio Grande, received a message from California carried by "Kit" Carson to the effect that that region had been conquered. Carson acted as guide for Kearny's party on its journey to California. As a result of the information that Carson had brought, Kearny sent 200 of the dragoons, which were accompanying him, back to Santa Fe. The Mormon Battalion, which arrived in Santa Fe October 12, started on the journey down the Rio Grande a week later, passing the returning dragoons, October 23. The Mormon Battalion, under St. George Cooke, left the Rio Grande, November 12, and finding it impossible to take their wagons on a westerly course to the Gila Valley, explored a route farther south which led through Tucson and back to the Gila, west of that place.

Affairs in Santa Fe, under Charles Bent, as civil governor, and Sterling Price, as military governor, were peaceful, but rumors of plans for a revolt existed prior to December, 1846. Complaints against the volunteers in Santa Fe were common. They disliked the country, its people and the inactivity of their military life. Ruxton, an English traveler, stated that crowds of dirty, rowdy, drunken volunteers filled the streets. There were those who believed that the conspiracies for the overthrow of the control established by the United States were in a large part due to the insolence of the soldiers. The Battle of Brazito ended the hope among some of the leading New Mexicans of assistance from the south. The placing of detachments of soldiers at Albuquerque, Cebolleta, on the Navaho frontier, and at Mora, was the beginning of the system of military posts established by the United States. This was done for the protection of the Rio Grande population from the nomadic Indians, and for the protection of the traders and emigrants, who increased in numbers due to the discovery of gold in California.

In December a plot for the expulsion of the United States was planned by some of the Mexican leaders who had opposed Manuel Armijo's policy of surrender. The plan as originally formulated provided for an attack upon Santa Fe on December 19, but the date was postponed until midnight of December 24. The Santa Fe force was to be gathered in the parish church and people from the surrounding country were to be lodged in the houses of those favorable to the uprising. At a meeting held December 15 at the home of Tomás Ortiz, he was chosen governor, and Diego Archuleta chief military officer. Among those who were suspected of being connected with the conspiracy were: Miguel Pino, Nicolas Pino, Juan Felipe Ortiz, Antonio José Martínez, Father Leyva, Antonio Ortiz, Facundo Pino, José María Sanchez, Santiago Martínez, Pascual Martínez, Antonio

Trujillo and Agustin Duran. Governor Bent reported that he received information concerning the plot on December 17, that seven of the minor leaders had been made prisoners, that Tomás Ortiz and Diego Archuleta were being pursued, and that the revolt was limited to the four northern counties, that is, Santa Fe, San Miguel, Taos, and Rio Arriba. The news of the plot had been brought to Governor Bent by the secretary of the civil government, Donaciano Vigil. The evidence of the plans was so slight that no convictions were secured and no one was punished for the plot. The conspiracy, apparently, had completely failed.

The failure of this first scheme to expel the army of the United States and its supporters by a surprise attack did not bring peace. Plotting continued, but so secretly that few of the men who were suspected of being connected with the first conspiracy were found guilty of encouraging the more successful uprising that broke out January 19, 1847. Antonio José Martinez was believed to have encouraged the uprising. Antonio Trujillo was convicted of treason.

After issuing a proclamation urging the people to accept the new government, the civil governor, Charles Bent, accompanied by several local officials, left Santa Fe, January 14, for Taos to remove his family to the capital. The party arrived at their destination, January 18, where the governor was warned to leave immediately. The governor, however, did not see fit to follow this advice because he had no fear for the safety of himself and his family. Early on the morning of January 19 a band of Mexicans, led by Pablo Montoya, and some Taos Indians, under Tomasito, went to the home of Governor Bent, where they killed Bent, Pablo Jaramillo and Narciso Beaubien. The Mexican women, Mrs. Bent, Mrs. Carson and Mrs. Boggs, who were present at the governor's house, were not harmed. The other officials killed following the attack upon Governor Bent's home were: Louis Lee, sheriff; Cornelio Vigil, prefect; and J. W. Leal, attorney.

Having murdered the representatives of the United States government in Taos, the Mexicans and Indians from Taos went to Arroyo Hondo, about ten miles north of Taos, where Simeon Turley had a mill and a distillery. There were eight men from the United States living at Turley's mill at the time. The struggle at the mill continued until evening, January 19, when those who remained agreed that all should attempt to make their escape. Only two of these men at Turley's mill saved themselves from the fury of the Mexicans and Indians.

At Mora, forty miles southwest of Taos, a party of Santa Fe traders were killed on January 20, 1847, by the Mexicans of the settlement under Manual Cortes. The owner of the caravan was Lawrence L. Waldo, the younger brother of Dr. David Waldo. In addition to Waldo, three others lost their lives at Mora. Capt. L. R. Hendley, in charge of grazing parties in the vicinity of Las Vegas, found the people of the settlement assembled on the evening of January 20, considering the plan of revolt. Hendley, on the following morning, occupied the town. He stated that all of the settlements east of the mountains had declared for the revolt except Tecoplote and Las Vegas. On January 24 Captain Hendley, with eighty men, marched northward to Mora, recovered the bodies of those slain at that place, but failed to capture the town. During the attack Hendley was killed. The Mexicans lost fifteen in the battle. Captain Morin succeeded Hendley in the command at Las Vegas. He marched thirty miles northward to Mora on February 1, drove the people from the settlement and destroyed the town.

When Colonel Price was informed of the uprising at Taos, on the day following the attack, he summoned some of the forces from Albuquerque, called for a volunteer company to be organized under Ceran St. Vrain, and with 353 men started for Taos, January 23. Additional forces joined Price before reaching Taos, making the total number of the command 480. The insurrectionists were first encountered on the afternoon of January 24, twenty-five miles northwest of Santa Fe, at Santa Cruz de la Cañada. The enemy numbered about 1,500. The houses were stormed by the troops and the army scattered in every direction. Camp for the night was established in the houses at Cañada. Proceeding up the Rio Grande, the army encountered some 600 rebels in the vicinity of Embudo. They were dispersed with the loss of twenty killed and sixty wounded. Price did not follow the present road to Taos, which goes up the Rio Grande Canyon for some distance north of Embudo, but turned eastward to Trampas and Chamisal, where he arrived January 31. The march was difficult due to the heavy fall of snow in the mountains. Three days later Price passed through the town of Taos to the Indian Pueblo three miles beyond, where, he had been informed, the rebels had fortified themselves in the old mission church. An attack was made during the afternoon of February 3, but not pressed because the full command had not arrived. The camp for the night was established at the town of Taos. The following morning Price advanced a second time upon the Pueblo of Taos. The troops attacked the western side of the church. At 9 o'clock the batteries began firing on the church, but after two hours the walls were still firm. This failure of the artillery was followed by a charge for the purpose of cutting the wall with axes and the firing of the roof. During this action Captain Burgwin attempted to break through the main entrance of the church and was mortally wounded. The church was taken and the defenders fled to the mountains, where they were attacked by the cavalry under Captains St. Vrain and Slack, fifty-one of the revolutionists being killed. The total losses of Price's army were seven killed and forty-five wounded —those of the revolutionists, 150 killed. The following morning the rebels sued for peace, which was granted provided they surrendered the leader, Tomasito. At the conclusion of the Taos rebellion all of the known active leaders had been killed except Manuel Cortes, who was operating east of the Sangre de Cristo Mountains.

No further trouble occurred until May, 1847, when a grazing camp east of the mountains, in the vicinity of Wagon Mound, commanded by Captain Robinson, was attacked by a party of Mexicans and Indians. They drove off 200 horses, killed one soldier and wounded two others, May 20. Major Edmondson, May 26, pursued the aggressors to the Canadian River Canyon between Wagon Mound and Roy, but failed to recapture the stolen animals.

Lieut. R. T. Brown, with three others, was sent, June 27, to Los Valles, about fifteen miles south of Las Vegas, to recover some stolen horses. When the animals were seized by the soldiers, they were shot down. Major Edmondson immediately marched to the settlement, killed a number who attempted to escape and took forty prisoners, who were sent to Santa Fe.

On July 6 Lieutenant Larkin and four soldiers were killed and all of the property of their grazing camp near Taos was captured. The commander at Taos, Lieutenant-Colonel Willock, pursued the attackers, but failed to overtake them.

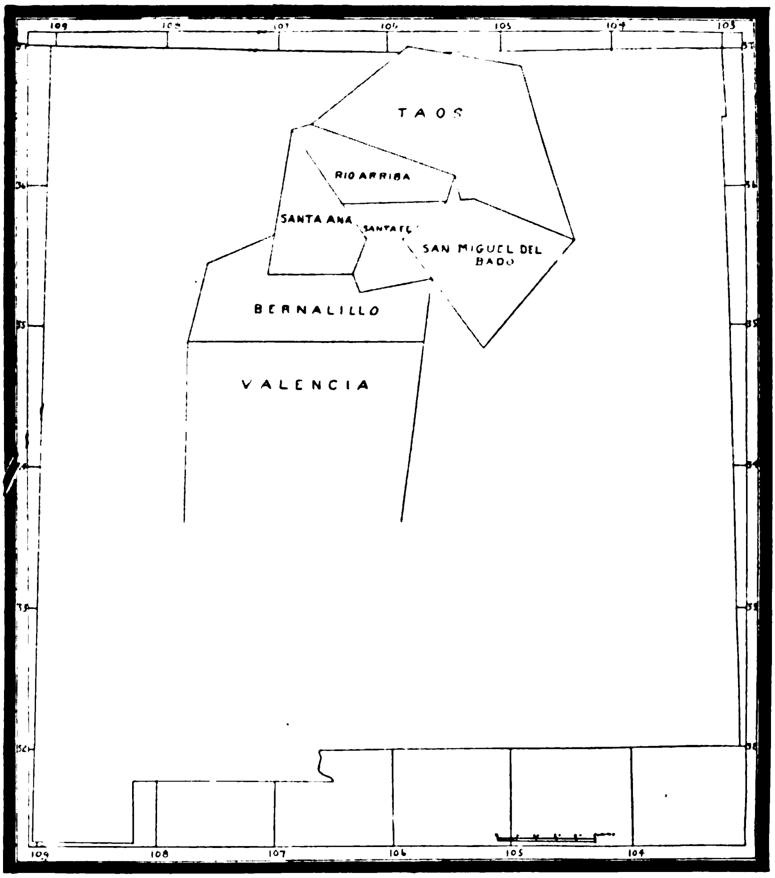
During the spring of 1847 the prisoners taken in the outbreak were tried. Some were dismissed for the lack of evidence, but a number were condemned to death either on the charge of murder or treason. The treason charge was not a true one, since the people were not citizens, but it was used and was another part of that unworkable system, a civil government with supreme power in the hands of the senior military officer.

Although the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, proclaimed July 4, 1848, definitely ceded New Mexico to the United States, the military government continued in control until the territorial government was established, March 3, 1851, as provided in the act of the Congress of the United States, September 9, 1850. During the military regime the civil government was controlled by the military, a condition which was opposed by the Americans who had come into the region. Only one attempt was made to hold a legislature under the civil government organized by Kearny. This body met December 6, 1847, and passed several laws which were later approved by the military authorities. The laws included one to enable Pueblo Indians to bring and defend actions, and another to establish titles. They also passed a resolution providing for the meeting of a convention in February, 1848, to consider the problem of government. This legislature, it will be seen, met before the end of the Mexican War. It consisted of a council of seven members elected from districts consisting of two counties each, and a House of Representatives of twenty-one members elected from the counties.

The convention asked for by the Legislature met at Santa Fe, October 10, 1848. The principal work of this body was the adoption of a memorial addressed to the Congress of the United States, requesting the immediate establishment of a territorial government. The committee that drafted the memorial were: Francisco Sarracino, Donaciano Vigil, Juan Perea and James Quinn. The memorial in addition to asking for a territorial government requested that the territory be protected against the introduction of slavery, and that eastern New Mexico be not separated from the remainder of the region on account of the Texas claim. When this petition was read in the Senate of the United States, December 13, 1848, the senators from the Southern states objected to the reference to the exclusion of slavery. Congress took no action.

In the summer of 1849 elections were ordered by the military governer for delegates to a convention to plan a civil government in New Mexico. The convention, which met September 24, 1849, was made up of nineteen members: two from Rio Arriba County; two from San Miguel county; two from Santa Ana County; three from Santa Fe County; two from Bernalillo County; three from Taos County; and five from Valencia County. The convention elected a delegate to Congress, Hugh N. Smith, but the national House of Representatives refused to admit him by a vote of ninety-two to eighty-six, which showed the opposition to the establishing in New Mexico of a territorial government. A committee consisting of W. Z. Angney, Joseph Nangle, W. C. Skinner, A. J. Otero and F. T. Baca was appointed to draw up a plan of government for the convention. This report favored the adoption of a territorial government for New Mexico. In the instructions for the delegate to Congress the convention held that the development of the country was being retarded by the absence of a civil government, that the civil rights of the people were not protected, that the people were not protected from the nomadic Indians, and that no provision for education was possible until a civil government should be organized by the United States. The delegate was instructed to favor the adoption of a territorial government for New Mexico modeled after that of Minnesota, but if he found that Congress opposed a territorial government and was favorable to the formation of a state, he should accept statehood under a constitution similar to that of Missouri. This plan of government recommended to Congress did not meet with success.

During the winter of 1849 and 1850, the desire for statehood was fostered particularly by James S. Calhoun and Lieutenant-Colonel McCall, who had been informed by the government of the United States that the administration favored the admission of New Mexico as a state in order to settle the question of slavery and the Texas claim to Eastern New Mexico. Two parties developed in New Mexico: the one favoring a territorial form of government; the other favoring statehood. A meeting was held in Santa Fe, April 20, 1850, by prominent citizens and a resolution was passed requesting the military governor to call for an election of delegates to a constitutional convention. The meetings of the delegates lasted from May 15 until May 25, during which period a state constitution for New Mexico was drawn up and adopted. The provision that defeated this constitution was the one prohibiting slavery. In 1850 there were fifteen free states and fifteen slave states, which gave equal representation to the two classes in the United States Senate.



NEW MEXICO COUNTIES, 1849.

The balance would have been preserved by admitting California as a free state and New Mexico as a slave state. The administration at Washington favored this method of settlement, but New Mexico's declaration against slavery made such a plan impossible. The slave states were determined that New Mexico should not be admitted as a free state and they succeeded in preventing her admission. Elections under the new constitution were held on June 20, 1850, for governor, lieutenant-governor, representative in Congress, state senators, and state representatives. Henry Connelly was elected governor; Manuel Alvarez, lieutenant-governor; William Messervy, representative. The constitution was adopted without serious opposition at the same election.

A dispute arose between the officers of the newly established state government, and the military governor relative to the authority of the new state officials. In the proclamation issued May 28, 1850, Colonel Munroe stated that the existing government should remain in effect until the United States Congress established one to take its place. The Legislature met July 4, chose F. A. Cunningham and R. H. Weightman as United States senators, created Socorro County, ordered local elections to be held in August, and continued in session for a week enacting general legislation. Had this government been allowed to function by the military authorities and had the United States Congress accepted the New Mexico State Constitution, this body would have become the first State Legislature of New Mexico, and the development would have been similar to that of California, but instead, the military officer refused to recognize the state organization and Congress would not admit New Mexico as a state. The local elections under the state constitution were held on August 12, and before any further difficulty arose between the opposing factions the group of bills since known as "The Compromise of 1850" were passed by Congress and New Mexico became a territory of the United States. The military control continued until March 3, 1851, when the territorial government was organized. The United States House of Representatives refused to seat W. S. Messervy as delegate.

The military force in New Mexico at the time of the Taos rebellion was principally Missouri volunteers who had enlisted for a short term. During the summer of 1847 the volunteers in New Mexico were re-enforced by more volunteers until the total number of soldiers in the military department was about 3,000 in December, 1847. After peace was declared the volunteers were mustered out in the fall of 1848. Six posts were established by November, 1848: at Taos, Santa Fe, Albuquerque, Tomé, Socorro and Doña Ana. The regular troops were increased gradually until they numbered 885 in the fall of 1849. In the spring of 1849 Colonel Washington found it necessary to organize five companies of volunteers. In the summer of 1851 the troops in New Mexico, numbering 1459, were distributed as follows: Headquarters for the Ninth Military Department was at Fort Union, on the Mora River, where there were stationed 416 men, under the departmental commander, Col. E. V. Sumner. The post in the Navaho country which in 1852 became Fort Defiance was the second largest garrison, consisting of 353 men, under Maj. E. Backus. At Fort Marcy, in Santa Fe, Lieutenant-Colonel Brooks commanded a force of seventy-two.

The garrison at Taos consisted of seventy soldiers under Major Gordon. At Cebolleta, north of Laguna, the command of Lieut.-Col. D. T. Chandler numbered 129. Maj. M. S. Howe commanded the garrison of 181 soldiers at Fort Conrad, between Socorro and San Marcial. Fort Fillmore, forty miles north of El Paso, was held by 172 men, under Lieut.-Col. D. S. Miles. In addition to these posts, there was a command of sixty-six men, under Lieutenant-Colonel Craig, which was acting as an escort for the Boundary Survey Commission. This military force of almost 1,500 well-armed soldiers placed in New Mexico before July, 1851, furnished more military protection than the country had ever had during its whole history, yet this force did not prove sufficient to make the nomadic Indians give up their habit of plundering the Rio Grande settlements.

The control of the nomadic Indians presented a difficult problem from the beginning of the occupation of New Mexico by the United States. The region could not be declared an "Indian country," in which all but authorized people would be kept out, as the United States had done in some parts of the West, because there was already a settled population along the Rio Grande which Kearny had promised protection and which the government was bound to protect as soon as they became citizens. The country to the east and west of the Rio Grande where there were no settlements was susceptible to regulation as an "Indian country," and this policy was recommended in 1849 by James S. Calhoun. The government had an additional Indian problem which arose from the terms of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. According to one of the articles of that agreement, the United States agreed to prevent the Indians within its territory from raiding into Mexico, to prevent the sale of fire-arms to Mexican Indians by persons within the United States, and to prevent Mexican citizens from being made captives by Indians living north of the international boundary. The Pueblo Indians living a settled agricultural life presented a problem quite different from that of the nomadic Indians, but one demanding the attention of the government.

During the military period treaties of peace were made and military posts were established for the protection and control of both the nomadic and Pueblo Indians, but little headway was made toward a final solution of the problem created in the country by their existence. Depredations of the nomadic tribes continued and the Pueblos complained that their lands were not protected from the nomadic Indians, the Mexicans, nor the citizens of the United States. Congress passed an act, March 3, 1847, appropriating $5,000 for the purpose of gathering information concerning the Indians of New Mexico, which should form a basis for the making of treaties with the various Indian groups. Some facts of this nature had already been sent to Washington in the fall of 1846 by Governor Bent. The Doniphan expedition in November, 1846, into the Navaho country had attempted by treaties to establish peace, but these treaties were not kept. In the spring of 1849 Indian attacks upon the Rio Grande towns by the Navaho increased. At this time the commissioner of Indian affairs abolished the office of Indian agent at Council Bluffs and created a similar position at Santa Fe, under orders from the President. James S. Calhoun was appointed Indian agent for New Mexico, March 29, 1849, and arrived in Santa Fe July 22. At an early date he became convinced that well-mounted troops were essential to the control of the nomadic Indians.

Colonel Washington decided to conduct a military campaign into the heart of the Navaho country to end the raids upon the Rio Grande Valley. The party, including Indian Agent Calhoun and Lieutenant Simpson, who wrote an account of the journey, consisted of 175 men. From Santa Fe, on August 16, they proceeded up the Jemez Valley, crossed the mountains to Chaco Canyon and to Canyon de Chelly, the center of the Navaho country. A treaty of peace was negotiated with Navaho chiefs, September 9, 1849. This treaty provided for the recognition of the authority of the United States, for the return of all captives and stolen property, for perpetual peace and friendship between the contending parties, for the punishing of offenses committed by citizens of the United States against the Navaho Indians, for the extension to the Navaho country of such laws as the United States should consider necessary, and for the defining of the boundaries of the Navaho lands at such time as the government should deem proper. These terms show that this agreement was in the nature of a peace treaty and not a cession treaty. It was ratified by the Senate of the United States, September 9, 1850. The party returned to Santa Fe by way of Zuñi and Albuquerque, arriving there on September 23. Before starting on the above expedition, Colonel Washington ordered Major Beall to conduct an expedition into the Ute country by way of the Chama Valley. This action was considered necessary because a large number of the Ute tribe had come as far south as Albuquerque and were threatening the valley settlements. Beall met the chiefs and demanded the return of all stolen property. Arrangements were made for drawing up a treaty, but the Indians were frightened by false stories told them and failed to appear at the time set for making the agreement. These excursions into the Indian country west of the Rio Grande did not bring peace. Calhoun stated that the attacks of the Indians had increased since American occupation, in his opinion due to the belief among the Indians that the Americans were too weak to punish depredations. Calhoun for this reason recommended, October 1, 1849, the placing of additional mounted troops among the nomadic tribes, and the restraining of the Comanche and Apache within definite limits, a policy carried out thirty years later. He also urged the extension to New Mexico of the law of 1834 regulating trade and intercourse with the Indians to prevent traders, unless licensed, from going among the Indians.

A treaty with twenty-four chiefs of the Ute Indians was negotiated by Calhoun at Abiquiu, December 30, 1849. The terms of the agreement were similar to those of the Navaho treaty. The Ute treaty was ratified by the Senate of the United States on September 9, 1850. It was more specific in one respect than the Navaho treaty in providing that as soon as the boundaries of the Ute lands should be defined by the government, the Ute Indians would accept the reservation.

An attempt was made in December, 1850, to negotiate a treaty with the Apache of Southern New Mexico. The Indians failed to appear. Governor Munroe sent C. A. May and C. Choice to Socorro, December 14, where the Apache had agreed to assemble. The commissioners waited twenty days, and at the end of that time were informed that the Apache chiefs were busy fighting the Navaho, and therefore could not come to make the treaty.

The Pueblo Indians, soon after the arrival of Kearny in New Mexico, held conferences with him and agreed to submit to the new government. For unknown causes a number of the northern Pueblos joined in the attempt to drive the Americans out of the country in January, 1847. After Calhoun became agent he attempted to quiet the Pueblo Indians, many of whom having been told by those who opposed the American occupation that the citizens of the United States would take the lands belonging to the Pueblos. In March, 1850, Calhoun recommended the grouping of the Pueblos into districts and the appointing of an agent to have control over each group of Indian towns. The commissioner of Indian affairs, in the summer of 1850, authorized Calhoun to make treaties with the various Pueblos. On July 7 a number of Pueblos sent representatives to Santa Fe, where they signed a treaty which the Indian agent had drawn up. The Pueblos signing this agreement were: Santa Clara, San Ildefonso, Tesuque, Nambé, Cochití, Santo Domingo, San Felipe, Santa Ana, Sia and Jemez. The Pueblos promised to place themselves under the jurisdiction and protection of the United States, and to have no associations with hostile Indians. The government promised to protect the Pueblos, to fix the boundaries of their lands as claimed by the various Pueblos, and to permit the Indian towns to govern themselves under their own laws and customs by officers chosen by themselves. These agreements were not ratified by the United States Senate. The complaints of the Pueblos continued and the condition of those Pueblos which had not signed treaties was in no particular different from those that had.

Two measures were taken by the United States in 1850 for the settlement of the Indian problem. In August a regiment of infantry was ordered to Santa Fe. The infantry companies were useful for the protection of property, but of little use in pursuing the mounted Apache, Navaho and Comanche. Congress on September 30, 1850, appropriated $30,000 for making treaties with the Indians along the Mexican border. A commission was appointed and accompanied the boundary survey commission which was attempting to mark the boundary between the United States and Mexico.

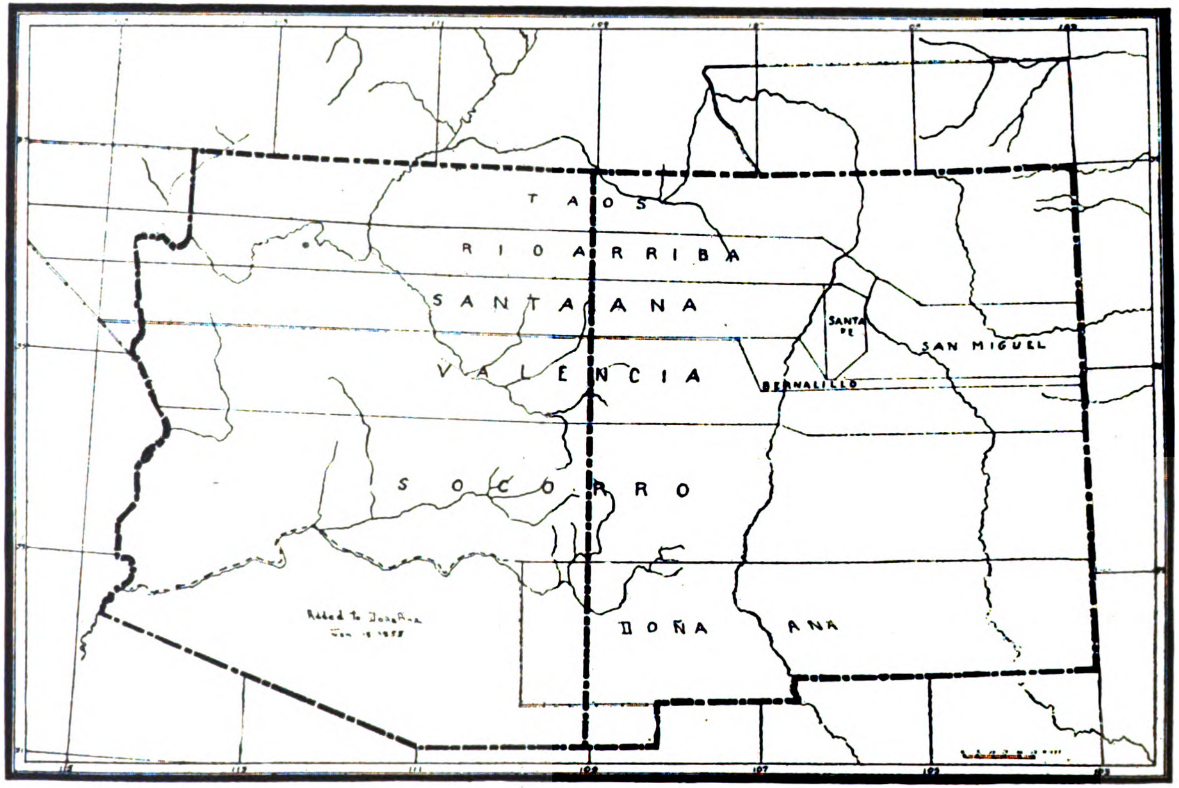
The treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, which was proclaimed July 4, 1848, in addition to providing for the protection of the northern states of Mexico from Indian attacks by natives from the United States, made provision for the retention of Mexican citizenship by those Mexicans living within the territory ceded to the United States, by those declaring their intention to that effect. Col. John M. Washington issued a proclamation, April 21, 1849, ordering the clerks of the probate courts in the various county seats to allow all those so desiring to sign a document headed, "We elect to retain the character of Mexican citizens." All of those not signing the above record prior to May 30, 1849, were to be considered citizens of the United States. This settlement was later assailed in the courts.

The boundary line between the United States and Mexico, as fixed by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, was marked without difficulty so far as the California and Texas portions were concerned, but a dispute arose concerning the line from the Rio Grande to the Gila River. According to Article V of the treaty, the line was to follow the middle of the deepest channel of the Rio Grande to the southern boundary of New Mexico, along the southern boundary to its western termination, and north along the western line until it intersected with the first branch of the Gila River. The southern and western limits of New Mexico were to be taken as marked on Disturnell's *Map of the United States*. There were two errors in this map: first, the Rio Grande was placed two degrees farther west than the correct position; second, El Paso was placed one-half degree, or approximately thirty-five miles, farther north than it should have been. Omitting the errors of location of principal landmarks, the line marked on the map ran westward from a point on the Rio Grande eight miles north of El Paso. The Mexican commissioner refused to accept this point and demanded a point eight miles north of the correct latitude. The Bartlett-Conde agreement, April, 1851, re-assured the Mexican people of Mesilla that they were within Mexican territory. These people had come principally from Doña Ana, where they had been driven out by Texans who took their lands under land certificates of Texas granting 640 acres to the holders of the same. The region in dispute between the United States and Mexico was an area thirty-five miles from north to south and extending from east to west three degrees of longitude. The United States refused to accept the line, which would have given the Mesilla Valley to

Mexico, principally because of the argument that the only practical route for a railroad to the Pacific ran through the disputed strip of territory. The Gadsden treaty settled this boundary question.

The exploration of New Mexico by the United States was begun in the military period. Kearny's army passed from the Arkansas to the Rio Grande and down the Gila to the Colorado River. A part of the army under St. George Cooke, which was called the Mormon Battalion, explored a wagon route, connecting the Rio Grand and the Gila, which lay some distance south of the Gila River. These explorations were carried out between August and December, 1846. The Gilpin-Jackson-Doniphan campaign into the Navaho country by way of the Chama Valley and Laguna took place between October and December, 1846. The third important official exploration was that of Col. John M. Washington into the Navaho country, which covered the period from August 16 until September 21, 1849.

Two military parties were organized in Texas for the purpose of locating roads from Fort Worth and San Antonio westward. Capt. R. B. Marcy, in command of thirty-one dragoons and fifty infantry, left Fort Worth April 30, 1849. The party followed the south side of the Canadian River to Anton Chico, to Santa Fe, down the Rio Grande to Doña Ana, west to the Pecos, and back to Fort Worth, where they returned November 20. Col. Joseph E. Johnston, with a party consisting of one company of infantry, twenty laborers, surveyors, scientists and a guide, left San Antonio in June, 1849. They crossed Texas to the Pecos, followed up that river to the thirty-second parallel of latitude, and west to El Paso. From El Paso trips were made up the Rio Grande as far as Doña Ana, and east of the Rio Grande in a northern direction to the vicinity of the present town of Alamogordo. Conquests, Indian wars, need for emigrant routes and plans for a Pacific railroad brought about the above early official exploration.


TAOS
RIO ARRIBA
SANTA ANA
SANTA FE
SAN MIGUEL
BERNALILLO
VALENCIA
SOCORRO
DOÑA ANA
Added to Doña Ana
Jan 18 1855
109
107
105
103

COUNTIES CREATED BY TERRITORIAL LEGISLATURE IN 1852

CHAPTER XX

THE TERRITORY OF NEW MEXICO BEFORE THE CIVIL WAR, 1851-1861

The act of Congress establishing the Territory of New Mexico, September 9, 1850, created the office of governor, which was filled through appointment by the president of the United States. The following men were governors during this period:

James S. Calhoun	March 3, 1851-May, 1852
William Carr Lane	September 13, 1852-April, 1853
David Merriwether	August, 1853-1857
Abraham Rencher	1857-1861

The Act of Congress, September 5, 1850, not only provided a territorial form of government for New Mexico, but also established the boundaries of the territory and made an offer for the settlement of the claim of Texas to the area east of the Rio Grande which that state accepted. The eastern boundary was fixed on the 103 meridian of longitude, the western line was the same as the eastern line of California, the northern boundary ran on the thirty-seventh parallel of latitude from the California line eastward to the divide between the San Juan Valley and the Rio Grande, northward along the divide to the thirty-eighth parallel, and eastward along that parallel to the 103 meridian. The southern boundary was the international boundary which was in dispute with Mexico, from the mouth of the Gila River to the Rio Grande. East of the Rio Grande the southern boundary ran along the thirty-second parallel of latitude to the 103 meridian of longitude. The western boundary of Texas was fixed and the state was offered $10,000,000 to surrender her claims to lands claimed within the boundaries established for New Mexico. This offer was accepted promptly by Texas.

The territorial form of government provided that the executive power should be vested in a governor, appointed for four years by the President of the United States, who should also be the superintendent of Indian affairs. The governor was given the power to veto all acts of the territorial Legislature, to enforce the laws, and to grant pardons. The office of secretary was created and filled in the same manner and for the same term as that of governor. His duties were those of a territorial recorder and was authorized to act in place of the governor.

The legislative branch of the government as organized consisted of two houses, the members to be elected from districts of equal population created by the Legislature. The council was made up of thirteen members elected for two years, and the House of Representatives of twenty-six members elected for one year. The election laws were to be passed by the Legislature. The legislative power extended to all local matters, with some limitations, but all acts had to be approved by the governor and submitted to the Congress of the United States. If the Congress disapproved a law it was of no effect. The session of the Legislature was limited to an annual session of forty days.

The judicial power was vested in a supreme court, district courts, probate courts and the justice of the peace courts. The supreme court consisted of a chief justice and two associates who should annually hold a term of court at the capital. The territory was to be divided into three judicial districts fixed by law. Each supreme court judge was also to be judge of one of the district courts. In addition to jurisdiction in local matters, the districts courts and the supreme court of the territory were given power as courts of the United States. The judges were appointed by the President of the United States for four years. The offices of United States marshal and the United States attorney for the territory of New Mexico were created and appointed in the same manner and for the same term as the judges.

The salaries of the executive, legislative and judicial officers were fixed by the act establishing the territory and paid by the United States:

Governor	$1,500
Governor, ex-officio superintendent of Indian affairs	1,000
Judges	1,800
Secretary	1,800
Members of the Legislature	$3 per day plus mileage

The act further provided that when the lands of the territory should be surveyed into townships that Sections 16 and 36 should be reserved for school purposes.

New Mexico was to be represented in the House of Representatives of the United States by a delegate elected for a term of two years. The delegate was allowed the same power as other territorial delegates, that is, he could propose and discuss measures, but had no vote. Disputed elections were common during this period. Hugh N. Smith, who was sent to Washington in 1849 by the New Mexico convention of that year, was refused a seat by a very close vote in the House of Representatives, 103 to 93. In 1850 W. S. Messervy was elected to the House of Representatives in the election held under the New Mexico State Constitution adopted in that year. Messervy presented his credentials after Congress had created the Territory of New Mexico and asked to be admitted as a delegate. The committee of the House of Representatives of the Congress of the United States reported against seating him as a delegate and no action was taken by Congress. R. H. Weightman was elected delegate in 1851 and defended New Mexico against the violent attacks made upon the country by Col. E. V. Sumner, who proposed the withdrawal of the United States government from New Mexico. The election for delegate in 1853 resulted in a contest between Governor William Carr Lane and José Manuel Gallegos. After an investigation by the congressional committee on elections, it was decided in favor of Gallegos. The contest had grown out of the conflict between the Mexican clergy and the Apostolic vicar, Lamy. Gallegos had been removed as priest of the Albuquerque parish for misconduct. Gallegos was again elected in 1855, and again the election was contested, this time the decision of the committee on election in the House of Representatives was against Gallegos and in favor of his opponent, Miguel A. Otero. In the two following elections Otero was elected, in 1857 defeating S. M. Baird, and in 1859 defeating Gallegos.

The governors of New Mexico during this period were: James S. Calhoun, William Carr Lane, David Merriwether and Abraham Rencher. Calhoun came to New Mexico as Indian agent in 1849 and was appointed first governor of the territory. His work as Indian agent had evidently met with the approval of the national administration. In May, 1852, he left Santa Fe for St. Louis, but died before reaching that place. The secretary of the territory had left before him, which resulted in Calhoun leaving the government in the hands of John Greiner, Indian agent. Colonel Sumner, commanding the military forces, refused to recognize Greiner as governor. This argument ended with the arrival of the new governor, who had been appointed by President Fillmore to succeed Calhoun. William Carr Lane was inaugurated September 13, 1852. He was an elderly man, having been the first mayor of St. Louis, an office to which he had been re-elected nine times. He also left New Mexico before his successor had been inaugurated, leaving the secretary, W. S. Messervy, in charge. Lane left in April, the new governor arriving in August, 1853. David Merriwether was appointed by Franklin Pierce. The new governor was familiar with New Mexico, having been held in prison in Santa Fe during the last days of Spanish rule. He was engaged during the year 1819 in trade among the Indians of the Rocky Mountains, and with a group of Pawnee made his first visit to Santa Fe. After a lapse of thirty-four years he came back as governor. Merriwether did not finish his term, but left New Mexico in 1856, placing the government in the hands of the secretary, W. W. H. Davis, who controlled for a period of eleven months before the arrival of the next governor. Abraham Rencher was appointed by President Buchanan. He was a lawyer, had been a member of the Congress of the United States and United States minister to Portugal. Rencher was followed by Henry Connelly, who was appointed by Abraham Lincoln in the spring of 1861.

There were ten legislative assemblies during this period, one each year. In each case there was one session, except the first legislative assembly, which had two sessions. The assembly met during December and January. The average number of laws passed was thirty-four, and the average number of joint resolutions and memorials was ten.

Among the acts having a lasting effect upon the region were those relating to counties. Six subdivisions were established in 1844, and these were not changed until 1850, when Socorro County was organized under a law passed by the temporary State Legislature of that year. The county lines as shown on map of 1849 were those marked by James Calhoun. The boundaries of the counties which existed January 9, 1852, were fixed by an act of that date. As will be seen by referring to the maps, the names and the general locality of the counties, with the exception of Socorro, were the same as in 1844, but the boundaries were entirely different. Four of the counties, Taos, Bernalillo, Valencia and Socorro ran from the Texas to the California boundary; two of them, Rio Arriba and Santa Ana, from the Rio Grande to the California line; Santa Fe and San Miguel counties were less extensive and not affected by the creation of Arizona Territory in 1863. In addition to defining the boundaries of these eight counties, the act of January 9 created Doña Ana County. The first change made in these counties was brought about by the Gadsden treaty with Mexico. The Congress of the United States passed an act, August 4, 1854, adding the territory purchased of Mexico by the Gadsden treaty to New Mexico. The legislative assembly of New Mexico included this area in Doña Ana County, January 18, 1855. Mora County was organized February 1, 1860. It consisted of all of Taos County lying east of the Sangre de Cristo Range. Arizona County was created February 1, 1860, from the western part of Doña Ana County.

The Gadsden treaty was not a plan for the extension of slavery by the acquisition of more territory from Mexico. It was, however, the result of the expansionist tendencies in the nation. The line suggested by the administration included a part of all of the northern states of Mexico, except Lower California, and all of that state. The immediate cause for the negotiation was the conflicting interpretations of the provision relating to the boundary between the Rio Grande and the Gila River. The disorganized financial and political condition of Mexico made it possible. The $10,000,000 which Mexico received was of no advantage to that country because it was squandered by Santa Anna. Article 2 of the treaty cancelled Article 11 of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, which had made the United States responsible for depredations committed in Mexico by Indians for the northern side of the international boundary. The line between the United States and Mexico as fixed by the treaty settled the dispute known as the "Mesilla Question," and settled it in favor of the United States. It not only settled that controversy, but added to the United States the southern half of the Gila Valley, which was believed to be necessary for a railroad to the Pacific. This was the view of St. George Cooke, who had explored a wagon route from the Rio Grande to the Colorado through the southern part of the Gila Valley in the latter part of 1846. The line as finally adopted after a series of proposed lines had been considered is the present international boundary between the Rio Grande and the Colorado River. The area has proved to be very valuable due to the copper deposits. The treaty was made December 30, 1853, and ratifications were exchanged June 30, 1854.

The exploration of New Mexico by the United States during the period was carried forward by boundary surveys, railroad surveys and Indian campaigns. The railroad surveys were merely an attempt to mark out a line or route. Some of the expeditions were accompanied by scientists who made lengthy reports on the flora and fauna of the country, on geology, meterology and ethnology. The exploring party, under Lieutenant Sitgreaves of the topographical engineers, mapped the route between Zuñi and Fort Yuma, between September 24 and November 30, 1851, following in general the thirty-fifth parallel. The survey had been ordered by a Senate resolution. The party consisted of a small military escort and Lieutenant Parke, who was later a leader in railroad explorations. The work outlined was successfully performed and a map produced of the country from Zuñi to the Little Colorado, along that river to its canyon, across to the Colorado River, and down that river to Fort Yuma.

The Bartlett survey of the international boundary was not a success because of the "Mesilla Question," although it accomplished some exploring. Lieut. A. W. Whipple, who was later connected with the Pacific Railroad Surveys, made a detailed survey of the Gila Valley for the boundary commission to which he had been attached. His survey, made between October 3, 1851, and January 10, 1852, began at San Pedro Springs, followed down the Gila Valley to the mouth of the river and to San Diego, California.

The two expeditions above were forerunners of the Pacific Railroad Surveys, although not planned as such. In the spring of 1853 the secretary of war, Jefferson Davis, was authorized by the Congress of the United States to send out a series of exploring expeditions for the purpose of determining the most feasible route for a railroad from the Mississippi Valley to the Pacific Coast. The surveys were known by the parallels of latitude which they followed in a general way. Two of the routes passed through New Mexico, namely, the thirty-fifth parallel survey and the thirty-second parallel survey. The railroad survey made by Lieut. A. W. Whipple was along the thirty-fifth parallel. The expedition was in the field from March 3 until August 5, 1853. In addition to the topographical engineers, there was a group of scientists officially connected with the expedition who reported on the country and the people living along the route. Leaving Fort Smith, the party followed the south bank of the Canadian as the Marcy expedition had done in 1849. Whipple left the Canadian shortly after arriving in New Mexico, continued west through Anton Chico to Albuquerque. The party continued to Zuñi, followed down the Little Colorado to the canyon, west to Needles, and across the desert to Los Angeles. The conclusion of Whipple's report was to the effect that the thirty-fifth parallel route was practical for a railroad from the Mississippi River to the Pacific Coast.

The survey of the thirty-second parallel route was made by two separate parties during the first part of 1854; the one covering the country from the Pacific Coast to the Rio Grande, the other from the Rio Grande eastward. Lieut. J. G. Parke, between January 24 and March 21, 1854, surveyed the route from San Diego to the Rio Grande, having in his party fifty-six persons. The party followed the southern emigrant route from San Diego to Fort Yuma, up the Gila Valley to the Pima villages, south to Tucson and due east to Doña Ana, on the Rio Grande. The route surveyed was not the property of the United States at the time of the survey. Although the Gadsden treaty had been negotiated, December 30, 1853, ratifications were not exchanged until June 30, 1854. The reports included scientific surveys describing the country. John Pope commanded the party of seventy-five men, including scientists and topographical engineers, who made the exploration for the thirty-second parallel route east of the Rio Grande between January 16 and May 15, 1854. The survey was begun at Albuquerque and proceeded to Doña Ana, which was the real starting point so far as the thirty-second parallel survey was concerned. The explorations were carried eastward, striking the Pecos Valley at a point almost due east of El Paso. The survey was then continued across Texas to the Brazos, and to Preston. In the report of the survey in addition to the diary, records and scientific reports, a list of advantages of the thirty-second parallel route was included. The surveys of Parke and Pope combined gave a complete report on the most southern route and the one favored by the Southern leaders, who were as interested in Western railroads as the prominent men of the Northern states. The map of the Western part of the United States, which was compiled with the aid of the reports of the railroad surveys, was far more complete than anything published before 1855. Incidentally, the New Mexico part was more detailed than any former map. It was not until the later '70s that these reconnaissances were followed by detailed surveys and the laying of tracks. The delay was due, in a large part, to the rivalry between the North and the South.

The Emory survey of the international boundary between the United States and Mexico was begun December 4, 1854, and the final report was dated August 1, 1856. The line between El Paso and the mouth of the Gila was determined and monuments placed to mark the boundary. The party consisted of topographical engineers, a military escort and scientists. The report was exhaustive, giving descriptions of the land and Indians, as well as determining the boundary.

The claims to lands resulting from the long occupation by Europeans, from Spanish and Mexican land grants, and from the existence of settled Indians, created a difficult problem. In the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, the United States agreed that the people in the ceded territory should be protected in their property rights. All public lands in the territory were the property of the United States under the laws regulating territories. The act establishing the territory reserved Sections 16 and 36 of each township for school purposes, when the United States land surveys should be made.

By an act of the Congress of the United States, July 22, 1854, the land laws of the United States were extended to New Mexico, and the office of the United States surveyor general for New Mexico was created. The surveyor general was instructed to investigate Pueblo Indian claims, and other land claims, to report to the commissioner of public lands upon the validity of claims, and to begin the surveying of New Mexico into townships. Under the direction of the surveyor general all of the documents in the *Santa Fe Archives* relating to land titles were separated from other papers and placed in the office of the surveyor general. In 1856 the surveyor general made an investigation of the land claims of the Pueblo Indians. He found that the basis for the claims in the case of twelve Pueblos was Spanish grants made September 20, 1689. On the strength of these documents and other facts he recommended the confirmation of lands to eighteen Pueblos. The report was submitted to Congress by the commissioner of public lands and the claims were confirmed by that body, December 22, 1858. The Pueblos having lands confirmed to them at this time, together with the areas, in round numbers, were as follows: Taos, 17,000 acres; Picuris, 17,000; San Juan, 17,000; Pojoaque, 13,000; Tesuque, 17,000; Santa Clara, 17,000; Nambé, 13,000; San Ildefonso, 17,000; Pecos, 18,000; Cochiti,. 34,000; Santo Domingo, 74,000; San Felipe, 34,000; Sia, 17,000; Jemez, 17,000; Sandia, 24,000; Isleta, 110,000; and Acoma, 95,000. Thirty-eight claims under Spanish or Mexican grants were approved by the surveyor general between 1856 and 1859 and were confirmed by Congress in 1860. The starting point for the United States surveying system was fixed by Surveyor General William Pelham in April, 1855, at a hill on the west bank of the Rio Grande about half way between Socorro and La Joya. The New Mexico meridian running north and south and the New Mexico base line running east and west intersected at this point. About 2,000,000 acres were surveyed into townships prior to 1861. The Santa Fe Land Office was established November 25, 1858, having been authorized by an act of Congress passed May 24, 1857, but no sales of public lands were made during this period.

The military establishment in New Mexico between 1851 and 1861 averaged about 1,700 men and cost the United States $3,000,000 annually. In 1858 the Ninth Military Department was composed of 1,687 men, commanded by Brig.-Gen. John Garland, and was distributed as follows: At Fort Fillmore, 155 men, under Lieut.-Col. D. S. Miles; at Fort Marcy, 67 men, commanded by Maj. J. T. Sprague; at Fort Union, 147 men, with Capt. A. J. Lindsay in charge; at Fort Bliss, 142 men, under Maj. T. H. Holmes; at Fort Defiance, 227 men, under Maj. W. T. H. Brooks; Cantonment Burgwin, nine miles north of Taos, 69 men, under Capt. H. B. Shroeder; Albuquerque, 36 men, under Col. B. L. E. Bonneville; at Fort Buchanan near Tucson, 136 men under Maj. E. H. Fitzgerald; at Fort Garland, eighty-five miles north of Taos, 81 men, under Capt. T. Duncan; at Camp Loring, 75 men, under Lieut. L. S. Baker; at Fort Craig, 167 men, under Lieut.-Col. J. D. Reeve; and at Fort Thorn, 156 men, under Lieut. G. W. Howland. The location of these commands shows that they were widely scattered and that the number of troops in a given region was small. It is not surprising, therefore, that they had difficulty in controlling the Navaho and the Apache, who were estimated at 10,000 and 5,000, respectively, and who had no desire to give up their traditional habits of attacking the settlements of the Rio Grande.

A series of conflicts with the Apache and the Navaho in this period grew out of attacks by these Indians upon the settlements. Three changes were made in the Indian service. An Indian agent had been provided in 1849 before the establishing of the territorial government. In the act establishing the territory, the governor was made, ex-officio, superintendent of Indian affairs. In the spring of 1851 three additional Indian agents were appointed for New Mexico, and in 1857 the office of superintendent of Indian affairs was separated from that of governor. James L. Collins was superintendent of Indian affairs from 1857 until 1863.

The policy of defeating the Indians in military campaigns and making peace treaties continued through the period, but failed to settle the Apache and Navaho Indian difficulties. With one exception, the treaties made were not ratified by the United States Senate. It was not until after the Civil war that the policy of restricting the Navaho and Apache to reservation was put into operation. A treaty was made with the Eastern Apache, living east of the Rio Grande, April 2, 1851, by Governor Calhoun. The Indians agreed to recognize the authority of the

United States and accept a reservation when one should be designated for them. It was further provided that the Indians should remain fifty miles from the traveled roads and refrain from attacks upon the settlements. The Indians agreed that trade with licensed traders should be carried on at Bosque Redondo, and that the United States should have the right to establish military posts in their country and designate trading points. In return the United States promised to furnish the Indians with agricultural implements and other presents to assist them in establishing themselves as an agricultural people. This treaty was not ratified by the Senate of the United States.

A second Apache treaty was made July 1, 1852, by Col. E. V. Sumner, in this case with the Apache living west of the Rio Grande. The United States Senate ratified this treaty, March 25, 1853. The terms of the treaty were similar to those of the treaty with the Eastern Apache.

Governor Lane attempted to settle the Jicarilla and the Gila Apache. Treaties were made with both of these groups during the winter of 1852-1853 which provided for liberal presents until the Indians should become self-supporting agricultural people. The policy was put into effect and $20,000 was spent in assisting the Indians. The Senate refused to ratify the treaties and the system of helping the Indians had to be abandoned for lack of funds. Governor Merriwether in June, 1855, made a treaty with the Mescalero Apache following a campaign in which the Indians had been completely defeated. A treaty was made which provided for a reservation in the vicinity of Fort Stanton and the present Mescalero Indian Reservation. The treaty was not ratified by the United States Senate, but a number of Indians were gathered together in the neighborhood of the fort, placed under an agent, and kept in peace until 1861. A treaty was also made by Merriwether in 1855 with the Mimbres Apache, and for a time they were quiet, but in 1857 became hostile during a military campaign by Col. B. L. E. Bonneville against the Coyotero Apache. They became friendly again, however, in 1858. In 1860 a reservation for the Apache was recommended in the Upper Gila Valley and later authorized by the Indian Bureau, although not set aside by an Act of Congress as was necessary at that time. The reservation was never occupied in part due to the hostility of the Southwestern Apache during the Civil war.

In the relations with the Navaho two treaties had been made and broken in the military period prior to the organization of the Territorial government. Colonel Sumner made an expedition into the Navaho country as far as Canyon de Chelly during the later months of 1851 and a post was established which was named Fort Defiance in 1852. An Indian agent, H. L. Dodge, was placed in control and during the early '50s there was little trouble. In 1855 Governor Merriwether made a treaty with the Navaho which fixed the eastern boundary of their lands, but it did not solve the Navaho problem. In the summer of 1858 a Navaho chief killed a negro servant attached to Fort Defiance. The Indians upon demand refused to surrender the murderer. A campaign against the Navaho continued from August until December, when a treaty was made limiting the range of the Navaho. This agreement was broken, depredations followed, and in 1859 Major Simonson was sent against the Navaho, but failed to force a treaty. In the spring of 1860, April 30, the Indians attacked Fort Defiance. Captain Shepherd advised the strengthening of the post, fearing that the Indians might renew their attacks. They were repulsed in their attempt to take the fort, but had not been pursued nor punished for their assault. During the winter of 1860-1861 Colonel Canby made a campaign into the Navaho country. The Indians lost heavily in livestock and instead of making a peace treaty, an armistice was agreed upon for a period of twelve months. In July, 1861, the troops were withdrawn from Fort Defiance. Navaho depredations continued which resulted in drastic measures being taken against them during and immediately after the Civil war.

There existed in New Mexico in 1851 groups of people with different religious ideas; the Pueblos Indians and the Mexicans. The Pueblo Indians were organized in theocratic states, the religious officials dominating the state. They had accepted Christianity, but not in the Christian sense. Christian beliefs were added to their own beliefs as additional means of obtaining assistance from the forces of nature. Attempts to crush out the native beliefs have always failed, because religious ideas are the foundation of organized society in the Pueblo. It is probable that so long as the Pueblo exists as a unit their religious practices, which take the form of community dances or ceremonies, will continue.

The Roman Catholic Church in New Mexico was an outgrowth of the Catholic Church in Spain, where the state in a measure controlled the church. Appointments were made by the state, and although authority in some matters was left to the church, the state and church were closely associated, in which relation the state was dominant. In matters of state the clergy played an important part. It is this type of organization, which shows its medieval origin, that explains the prominence of the clergy in political matters during the Mexican period and in the early period of American occupation of New Mexico. There were three churchmen: Juan Felipe Ortiz, the vicar-general of the Territory; Antonio José Martínez, priest of Taos; and José Manuel Gallegos, priest of Albuquerque; who were leaders during the Mexican rule and who continued as political leaders after the formation of the Territorial government.

Authorities of the Roman Catholic Church in the United States urged that some action be taken by the Holy See relative to church organization in New Mexico. Following this request

Rev. John B. Lamy was appointed vicar apostolic of New Mexico. He was consecrated at Cincinnati, Ohio, November 24, 1850, and arrived in New Mexico in the summer of 1851. During the month of October, 1850, the Bishop of Durango visited the New Mexico part of his diocese. When Bishop Lamy arrived in Santa Fe he found that the leaders among the clergy did not wish to recognize his authority and for the purpose of satisfying them he made a visit to Durango, where he received the recognition of his authority by the Bishop of Durango.

The conflict between Bishop Lamy and the New Mexican clergy was due to their careless performance of church duties, their political activities and the condition of Christianity in New Mexico. Rev. Joseph P. Machebeuf, who came to New Mexico with Bishop Lamy, stated that there was a blind devotion among the peope which was sometimes mixed with fanaticisms and superstition. The organization known as the *Penitentes* did not meet with the approval of the new church authorities. The *Penitentes* practiced flagellation during Holy Week. Difficulties with the New Mexican leaders grew out of reforms which the new clergy introduced. Juan Felipe Ortiz after objecting to plans for the division of the parish of Santa Fe left New Mexico, going to Durango. José Manuel Gallegos refused to follow the advice of the bishop and was removed from his place as priest of the parish of Albuquerque. Gallegos made an unsuccessful attempt to continue to exercise his authority regardless of the orders of the bishop. The most serious trouble developed in Taos. Father Antonio José Martinez resigned shortly after the arrival of the new bishop. His successor, Father Damasio Taladrid, became involved in a dispute with Father Martinez who was suspended by Bishop Lamy after the latter had made strenuous efforts to bring about peace. Finally, the bishop was forced to excommunicate Father Martinez, because he had disobeyed the order for his suspension. Under these circumstances Father Martinez and his followers set up an independent church. Father Machebeuf, the vicar of the diocese, was sent to Taos to pronounce the excommunication. Many feared that violence would be used to prevent carrying out the order. The party favorable to the new clergy let it be known that they would not permit any repetition of the events in Taos when Governor Bent and others were killed. Probably as a result of the warning from such men as Christopher Carson, Carlos Beaubien and Ceran St. Vrain no violence was offered.

Bishop Lamy, in addition to raising the conceptions of Christianity in New Mexico laid the foundation before 1861 for the charitable and educational work of the Catholic Church in New Mexico. In the spring of 1852 the bishop returned to Baltimore to attend a council at which the petition was made which resulted in the change of his title from that of Bishop of Agathon to that of Bishop of Santa Fe. Four sisters of Loretto accompanied Bishop Lamy on his return to Santa Fe, where they arrived September 27, 1852. Other sisters of Loretto followed and convents and academies were founded at Santa Fe, Taos and Mora before 1861. The bishop visited Rome in 1854 and brought from France a number of workers. Five years later Father Peter Eguillon was sent to France, returning with nine assistants and four brothers of the Order of San Miguel, who became the founders of St. Michael's College in Santa Fe.

With the advance of the population of the United States westward in the '50s, Protestant and Catholic missionaries formed a part of the vanguard. In New Mexico the Mexican people were more numerous and the emigration from the United States was less than in California or Texas. For this reason there were few people before 1860 in New Mexico of the Protestant churches and a large number of Mexican Catholics. Protestant missionary work, therefore, did not become effective until after the number of people from the United States increased. In July, 1849, the Baptist missionary, Henry W. Read, established a school in Santa Fe. A church built in Santa Fe by the Baptists was completed January 15, 1854, and some ten years later sold to the Presbyterians. Samuel Gorman of Dayton, Ohio, was appointed in the spring of 1852 as missionary to New Mexico by the American Baptists Home Missionary Society. After consultation with Reverend Read at Santa Fe it was decided to establish a mission at Laguna, where Reverend Gorman and his family arrived October 5, 1852. Their early difficulties were very discouraging, but through the efforts of Indian Agent Henry L. Dodge, they were adopted into the community. Work was continued at Laguna until March 1, 1859, when Reverend Gorman was transferred to Santa Fe, where he taught and preached until the spring of 1862, when he returned to Ohio. A Methodist missionary, E. G. Nicholson, held services in Santa Fe for two years, beginning in 1850, but after that time the work was abandoned.

The attempts to gain funds for public schools in the period before the Civil war failed. Memorials were sent to Congress asking for aid in establishing schools, but Congress gave no assistance. A law was passed by the legislative assembly providing taxation for school purposes, but was repealed by the following assembly. The first memorial to Congress was passed January 10, 1853. It asked that Congress make an annual appropriation for a limited time for the support of the public schools in the Territory since no money would be available from school lands for some years. A more definite proposition was made to Congress by the New Mexico Legislative Assembly in a memorial passed December 30, 1854. It was stated that seven-eighths of the adult people were illiterate. The memorial asked that an annual appropriation for schools be made by Congress in place of the land grants. These appeals to Congress were without results. On February 4, 1856 the legislative assembly passed the first law providing for taxation to support public schools. This law was repealed by the following legislative assembly on December 23, 1856. There was so much opposition to the passage of this act that a provision was included that it should be submitted to a vote of the people in four of the nine counties, which were Taos, Rio Arriba, Santa Ana and Socorro. There were only thirty-seven votes out of 5,053 in these four counties in favor of the law. The law provided that every person whose property amounted to less than $250 should pay an annual tax of $1.00 and that those whose property amounted to $1,000 or more should pay a tax of $1.00 on each $1,000. The law made provision for the assessing of property and for the collection of the tax. A board of education was created in each county. Its duties included the management of the county schools. All persons between the ages of seven and fourteen were required to attend school. Teachers' salaries, according to this law, should not be less than $8.00 nor more than $40.00 per month. Following the repeal of the school law, the legislative assembly again appealed to Congress for aid. The memorial, after pointing out that the school lands did not help in establishing schools, requested that Congress appropriate $500,000 as a fund for the support of the public schools in New Mexico, the interest on which should be used for current needs. The school lands, according to the suggestion of the memorial, could be considered as security. In this manner the principal sum would be eventually returned to the Government when the school lands became valuable. Evidently the plan did not appeal to Congress for that body took no action. The opposition to a property tax for school purposes necessitated some other method of support for public education. The only form of taxation in this period was licenses of various kinds. A law passed January 27, 1860, provided that all persons of school age must attend school and that the teacher should receive 50 cents a month from each pupil. The school term was five months, as fixed by law, from November 1 to April 1. The control of the schools was placed under the justices of the peace of the precincts, who appointed the teachers, inspected the work of the school and removed the teacher in case of incompetency. The probate judges of the counties were given general supervision of the schools. In 1860 there was no public school in the Territory. The number of illiterate people was placed at 57,233 by the census of 1860.

Stock raising increased in importance between 1850 and 1860. The cattle in New Mexico in 1827 numbered 5,000; in 1850, 33,000; and in 1860, 89,000. Sheep in New Mexico in 1827 numbered 240,000; in 1850, 380,000; and in 1860, 830,000. Large numbers of New Mexico sheep were driven into Chihuahua during the last years of the control of the region by Mexico. The price was very low, 50 cents a head. Drives to California were due to the demand and the high prices paid for sheep. In 1852, according to the best reports, 40,000 sheep were driven to California and sold for $12.00 each. The 1853 drive amounted to 135,000 sheep with a lower price, $9.00 a head. During the following four years the drives continued, the price dropping to $4.00 each. In all about 500,000 sheep were driven to California in a period of six years. The sheep drives from California to New Mexico as well as the cattle drives from Texas belong to a later period.

The population of New Mexico, which included all of Arizona and Southeastern Colorado, increased from 61,547 in 1850 to 82,979 in 1860. These figures do not include the Indian population, which was placed at 55,100 in 1860. The population of the counties was as follows: Bernalillo, 7,751 in 1850, and 8,574 in 1860; Rio Arriba, 10,668 in 1850, and 9,329 in 1860; Santa Ana, 4,645 in 1850, and 1,505 in 1860; Santa Fe, 7,713 in 1850, and 8,032 in 1860; San Miguel, 7,074 in 1850, and 13,670 in 1860; Taos, 9,507 in 1850, and 13,479 in 1860; Valencia, 14,189 in 1850 and 8,500 in 1860; Arizona, 2,421 in 1860; Socorro, 5,707 in 1860; Donâ Ana, 6,239 in 1860; and Mora, 5,524 in 1860.

CHAPTER XXI

CAMPAIGNS OF THE CIVIL WAR IN NEW MEXICO, 1861-1865

The Texan forces of the Confederate States of America planned to occupy New Mexico, Utah, California through the combined strength of the Texan military organization and the southern sympathizers in the West. The Northern volunteers proved to be strong enough in California and Colorado to prevent the organizing of the Southerners, to drive the Texans out of New Mexico, and to defeat the Navaho. The defeat of the Texan army at Apache Canyon between Santa Fe and Las Vegas in March, 1862, was one of the early Northern victories.

There is some evidence pointing toward a plan upon the part of the Southern leaders to take over the military force and supplies of New Mexico. Col. W. W. Loring was placed in charge of the army in New Mexico and Col. G. B. Crittenden was made commander against the Apache by the Secretary of War, Floyd, in 1860. Lieut.-Col. B. S. Roberts warned other officers of the plans of the leaders. In the spring of 1861 Loring, Crittenden, Baylor, Sibley and the secretary of the Territory, resigned and made their way to Mesilla, south of Fort Fillmore, where they found a strong sentiment in favor of the South. In March, 1861, a convention held at Mesilla declared in favor of the Confederacy. Fort Bliss was occupied by Lieut.-Col. John R. Baylor in July and before the end of the month he marched north to Mesilla, which was a short distance south of Fort Fillmore.

The commander of Fort Fillmore, Maj. Isaac Lynde, was informed of the presence of Baylor's forces at Mesilla at an early hour on July 25. At 9 o'clock Capt. C. H. McNally discovered the enemy and was ordered to advance, but finding that he was not supported retreated. Major Lynde led his men back to Fort Fillmore and decided to abandon the post. Fort Buchanan near Tucson was abandoned in July, 1861, the men marching to Fort Craig. Major Lynde destroyed the supplies which he could not transport and started on July 27 for Fort Stanton. Before reaching San Agustin Springs, twenty miles northeast of Fort Fillmore, they were overtaken by a command under Colonel Baylor. According to Lynde he could not muster 100 men out of a command of 600 for the fight due to the effects of the march upon the command. Baylor's force was not more than 300 although reported as much larger. When Lynde surrendered without firing a gun his officers objected, but they were overruled. For his part in the affair Lynde was dismissed from the United States army. Colonel Baylor paroled the 410 prisoners at Las Cruces because he had no force for a prison guard. Lieut.-Col. B. S. Roberts, after Lynde's surrender, abandoned Fort Stanton which was soon afterwards occupied by a Southern force under Captain Walker.

Military organizations, in large part volunteers, were created in Texas, New Mexico, Colorado and California that were destined to meet in New Mexico. Brig.-Gen. H. H. Sibley received his commission in Richmond, Virginia, July 8, 1861. He was ordered to organize a force in Texas consisting of two regiments of cavalry and such other troops as seemed necessary for the purpose of driving the Northern army out of New Mexico. Sibley planned to have his men ready for the invasion of New Mexico by September, but it was not until December that he arrived at El Paso. A proclamation was issued by Sibley, December 20, 1861, condemning the North and calling on the soldiers and the people of New Mexico to join the Confederacy. The document was similar in language to Kearny's appeal in 1846. It is probable that it was written by the former secretary of New Mexico, Alexander Jackson, who was adjutant in Sibley's army. Before the arrival of Sibley to take control, Colonel Baylor issued a proclamation, August 1, 1861, creating the Territory of Arizona of the Confederate States from that part of New Mexico lying south of the thirty-fourth parallel. The small Confederate force had difficulty checking the Northern scouting parties from Fort Craig and the Apache, during the fall of 1861. General Sibley's army, consisting of 2,300 men, left Fort Bliss in the early part of January, marched up the Rio Grande Valley, and arrived in the vicinity of Fort Craig, near San Marcial, on February 18, 1862.

In New Mexico Col. E. R. S. Canby took charge of military affairs after the resignation of Colonel Loring. Canby had little respect for the fighting ability of the native New Mexicans. However, the regular force was not more than 900 which was not considered sufficient to meet the Texans. Early in 1861 orders had been issued for the withdrawal of a large part of the regular army stationed in New Mexico. This order was changed, August 13, 1861, allowing a postponement of the removal of the regular troops. Many believed that if the defense of the Territory was left to the volunteers of New Mexico the forts and military supplies amounting to $250,000 would fall into the hands of the Texans. In addition to the militia organized in New Mexico, five volunteer regiments were authorized. Colonel Canby reported, August 16, 1861, that of thirty-two companies called for only nineteen had been completed. During the fall of 1861 Canby strengthened Fort Craig and Fort Union. These were the two points which formed the centers of defense. As late as January, 1862, Colonel Canby was not certain whether the attack would be made by way of the Rio Grande or by way of the Canadian and the Pecos, or by both of these routes. On January 11 Canby wrote that the scouts on the Pecos had discovered no military force in that valley which was contrary to the information of December 28, 1861, that a Texan force of 2,000 men was moving up the Pecos. Canby believed that an invasion by way of the Pecos Valley was a part of the original plan, but that the Texans had failed to raise a sufficiently large army to divide it and therefore had given up the plan of attacking by way of the Pecos. The Northern force at Fort Craig on January 11, 1862, consisted of one company of spies, two of militia, ten of volunteers and six of regulars, making a total of 1,400 men. When it was determined in February that the attack was to be made from one direction, namely, the Rio Grande Valley, additional forces, including one company of Colorado volunteers, were ordered to Fort Craig, the total number being 3,810, although 1,000 of these were unorganized militia.

The Colorado volunteers were organized in the summer of 1861 by Gov. William Gilpin for the protection of the routes to Colorado, for the continuation of Northern control in the Territory, and for the assistance of Northern forces in New Mexico. In reply to Colonel Canby's request for aid, July 6, 1861, Governor Gilpin reported that two companies had been organized and ordered to report at Fort Garland in the San Luis Valley. On September 8, 1861, Canby wrote to Gilpin stating that two new regiments of volunteers had been ordered raised in New Mexico. Canby believed that these could not be found in New Mexico and asked Gilpin if he could provide six companies. Gilpin replied that he could not furnish the men requested, but that he would make every effort to help in New Mexico. The two companies mentioned above formed the nucleus of the First Regiment of Colorado Volunteers. Two independent companies were mustered into United States service in December, 1861, at Fort Garland. They proceeded to Santa Fe, arriving in February. One of these companies was sent to Fort Craig, the other to Fort Union. The organization of the First Regiment was effected August 21, 1861. Late in the fall of 1861 three companies were sent to Fort Lyon to protect the southeastern part of the Territory from an invasion by way of the Arkansas. The main part of the First Regiment remained at Camp Weld near Denver until February 22, 1862, the day after the battle of Valverde. The Colorado Volunteers arrived at Raton Pass on March 7 and reached Fort Union on the Mora River March 11. In addition to the difficulty of marching through snow in the mountains the troop suffered from the lack of clothing and other supplies. They were furnished outfits from the stores at Fort Union.

The fourth group of hastily organized troops that played a part in the conflict in New Mexico in 1862 was the California

Volunteers. The plan of organizing volunteers was first proposed for the purpose of protecting the overland mail route from San Francisco to Salt Lake City. The offer of the governor of California to raise one regiment of infantry and five companies of cavalry for this service was accepted by the United States, July 25, 1861. These volunteers were organized and mustered in at the Presidio near San Francisco. Due to the activities of Southern sympathizers in Southern California the force was sent to the Los Angeles district. Col. James H. Carleton was called to San Francisco in the latter part of November, where news was received of the advance of Sibley's Texan army toward New Mexico which convinced Carleton and Gen. George Wright, in command of the Pacific Division of the United States army, that the California volunteers could be used to advantage in New Mexico. The plan was submitted to the War Department and approved. A force of 1,500 men was marched across the desert from Los Angeles to Yuma prior to April 1, 1862. In addition to the troops mentioned above there was one company of the Second California Cavalry and one battery of the Third United States Artillery. This army was later increased to 2;350 men by the addition of the Fifth Regiment of California Infantry commanded by G. W. Bowie.

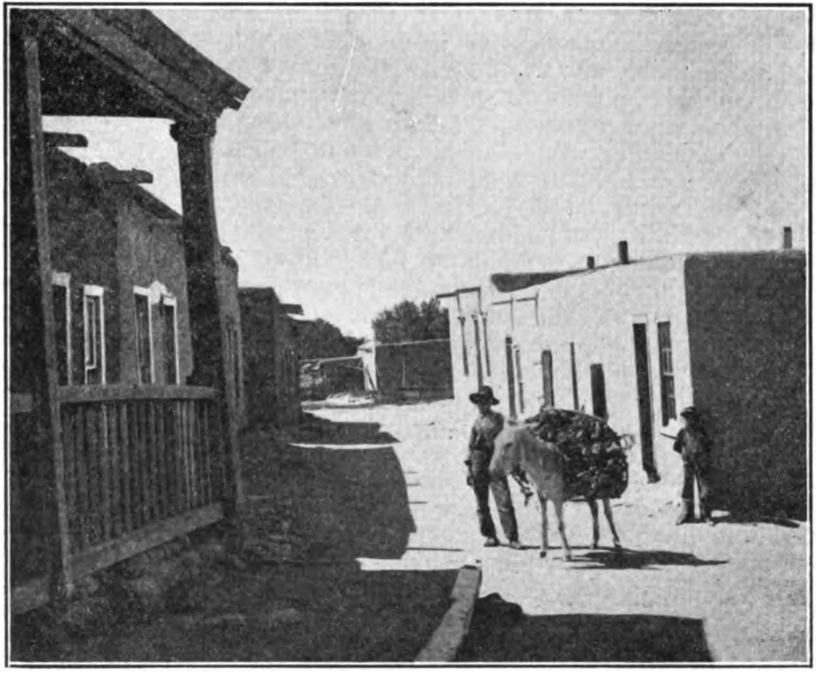
A scouting party was sent out from Fort Yuma up the Gila Valley, met a Confederate outpost at Picacho Pass on April 15 and several of the Union party were killed. Tucson had been occupied in February, 1862, without opposition by a detachment of about 200 Texans under Captain Hunter sent from Mesilla on the Rio Grande by General Sibley. The California volunteers were informed by Indians that Tucson was fortified and that the force was not large enough to take the place. Therefore, when on May 20 the army arrived near Tucson careful preparations were made for attacking the town. Much to the surprise of the Union troops they found the place deserted, the Confederates having returned to the Rio Grande and the native population having fled southward toward Sonora. For two months, that is until July 20, the troops remained in Tucson waiting for supplies and re-enforcements. A cavalry detachment under Lieut.-Col. E. E. Eyre left Tucson on June 21 and arrived at the Rio Grande near Rincon where they were re-enforced by a squadron of the Third United States Cavalry under Captain Howland. The main body of the California Volunteers started for the Rio Grande on July 20 and reached their destination in detachments between August 7 and August 15, 1862.

Returning to the account of the Texan invasion by General Sibley the army arrived at Fort Thorn near Rincon February 7 and advanced up the Rio Grande Valley to Fort Craig, near San Marcial. On February 16 a strong advance party was sent to within one mile of the fort, which was on the west bank of the Rio Grande. The challenge to a battle in the open plain south of Fort Craig was refused by Canby and the Confederates decided not to attack the Fort. The Texans, on February 19, retraced their line of march to a place seven miles below Fort Craig, where they crossed to the east side of the Rio Grande, and on the following day marched up a ravine parallel to the Rio Grande, which was sheltered by a ridge of hills, to a position nearly opposite Fort Craig. Before 4 o'clock on the afternoon of February 20 the main body of the Union force had crossed the river and advanced toward the ravine up which the Confederate army was marching. When the firing began with the advance of skirmishers the regiment of New Mexico volunteers under Miguel Pino was immediately thrown into confusion. The artillery and cavalry were withdrawn from the field, returning to the fort on the west bank and the infantry was posted to prevent the occupation of the point of land opposite the fort. During the night a baggage train was lost by the Texans. This was caused by the running away of 100 mules, which were captured and brought into Fort Craig.

The Confederate force on the morning of February 21, and the date of the Battle of Valverde, had passed Fort Craig and Mesa del Contadero which occupied a bend of the river immediately north of the fort on the east side of the river. Col. Thomas Green stated that the success of this movement was due to the guidance of Captain Frazier of the Arizona volunteers. It was necessary that the Southern force reach the river as they had made a dry camp on the night of February 20. At 8 o'clock as a part of the Southern troops moved toward the ford of the Rio Grande which was seven miles above the fort, General Canby ordered a cavalry and artillery detachment to prevent the Texans from occupying the ford in the bend of the river. It was not until noon that a large part of the force of the contending parties were in position on the battlefield, which formed the base of a triangle, the river forming the other two sides. The wings of both armies were, therefore, close to the river, the Northern force near the river and the Southern force to the east near the hills. Canby had withdrawn his force from the east side of the river opposite Fort Craig and marched them north to the battlefield and again crossed the force to the east side. The artillery attacks continued through the day until about 4 o'clock in the afternoon, when a charge was made on the southern end of the line by the Confederates. This advance was thrown back and the Texans driven from the field, but the main attack was immediately made by 1,000 Southerners who had been screened by sand dunes on the northern end of the line. Captain McRae's battery was captured and turned upon the Northern Army. The capture of the battery was due to the failure of part of the volunteers and some of the regulars to support the battery. The Union force retreated across the river, reformed, except some of the volunteers, who had deserted, and marched southward to Fort Craig. The battle was a victory for the Texans, but the losses were about equal, each side losing in killed and wounded approximately 200 men.

Both generals consulted their officers immediately following the battle relative to the next move. General Sibley sent three officers on the morning after the battle with the demand that the fort be surrendered. Upon his refusal, General Canby expected an attack, but did not fear the result. The council held by Sibley decided that there would be no great danger in proceeding up the valley leaving Canby's army between them and Southern New Mexico. After resting two days in a camp near the Valverde battlefield, the Confederate army began the advance and met no opposition until March 26, when the regulars and Colorado vounteers disputed their passage at Apache Canyon. General Canby proposed three plans: First, to hold Fort Craig and cut off the enemy on his retreat from Northern New Mexico down the Rio Grande; second, to attempt to place the force at Fort Craig above the enemy and impede his progress; and third, to bring on another battle in the immediate vicinity. Canby and his officers agreed upon the first plan. Volunteers were sent north in front of the Confederate advance. The Second Regiment of New Mexico Volunteers under Col. Miguel Pino surrendered at Socorro, February 25. The members of the regiment had so completely deserted that nothing was left for the officers to do but surrender. At 10 o'clock on the morning of February 25 volunteers to the number of 150 came from their hiding places and took the oath of neutrality administered by the Confederates. Captain Enos in charge of the supplies at Albuquerque received word March 1 that the Texans had reached Belen. He immediately began loading ordnance supplies in order to prevent them from falling into the hands of the Confederates. At an early hour on the following morning the buildings containing supplies that could not be removed were set on fire. Nine wagons were lost on the way to Santa Fe, captured by robbers. Major Donaldson, on March 4, loaded 120 wagons with supplies in Santa Fe, abandoned the town, and with a strong military escort marched to Fort Union. On March 10 he reported his operations and also enclosed the report of Captain Enos. A Confederate detachment of four men appeared at Cubero, sixty miles west of Albuquerque, and demanded the surrender of the post, its garrison of forty-two men, and the military supplies.

The headquarters of the Confederate forces were established at Albuquerque early in March and Santa Fe was occupied a few days later. Major Pyron advanced from Santa Fe toward Apache Canyon on March 25 upon receiving news of the movement of the Northern force from Fort Union along the road toward Santa Fe on March 22. This Union army which arrived at Bernal Springs March 25 consisted of 1,342 men, 916 of whom were Colorado volunteers. Major Chivington, March 25, with 380 men, was sent forward for the purpose of proceeding to Santa Fe, but met Major Pyron's command upon arriving in the neighborhood of Apache Canyon, twenty-three miles east of Santa Fe. At 10 o'clock on the morning of March 26 the Confederate pickets were captured by a detachment sent out from Major Chivington's command. The battery of the Southerners was forced back early in the engagement by the fire from the skirmishers who had been placed on the right and left sides of the canyon by Chivington. The fight continued until sundown, the Southerners being forced to retreat a short distance. On account of the absence of artillery and because of the lack of knowledge of the location of the Southern re-enforcements, Major Chivington withdrew his force to Pigeon's Ranch. The losses in this battle between detachments, according to the Northern report, were: For the North, five killed and fourteen wounded; for the South, thirty-two killed, forty-three wounded and seventy-one prisoners.



OLD STREET IN SANTA FE. PAINTING BY FREMONT ELLIS

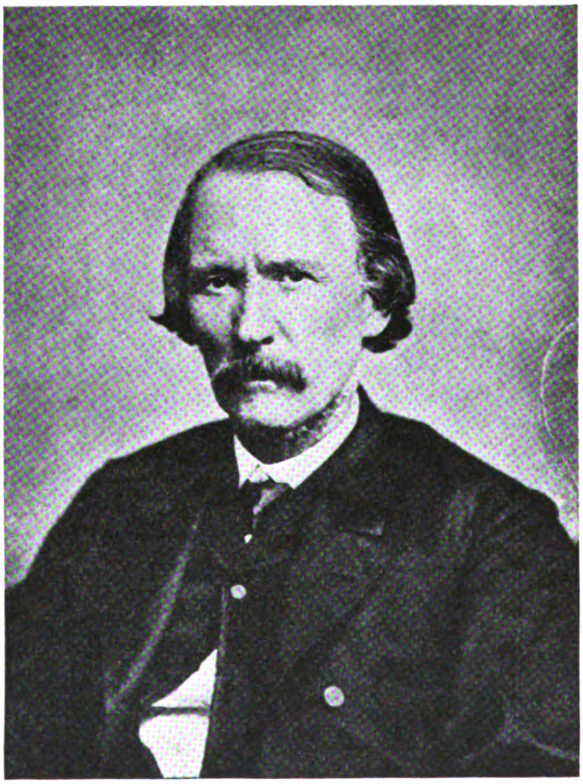
Two days later the battle between the armies took place at Apache Canyon. Major Pyron, after the battle with Chivington's advance party, sent word to Col. W. R. Scurry at Galisteo asking for assistance. Scurry immediately moved his forces northward to Canyoncito where Pyron was encamped, arriving at 3 o'clock on the morning of March 27. The Confederate army was in position at 8 o'clock expecting an attack at that time, but the Northern forces did not appear until the next morning. Col. John P. Slough, in command of the Northern troops of regulars and Colorado volunteers, marched from Bernal Springs toward the camp of the Texans at Johnson's Ranch. The Union command arrived at Pigeons' Ranch at half past ten, Major Chivington with a detachment of 430 men having left the main force. Chivington's forces were directed to follow the road toward Galisteo, which they did for eight miles, then turning north they traveled eight miles without a road to the height on the southern side of Apache Canyon overlooking the Confederate camp at Johnson's Ranch. This position was gained at half past one in the afternoon and immediately it was discovered that the baggage train of the Texans could be attacked. The train consisted of eighty wagons and one field piece, which were protected by 200 men. Chivington's force charged down the mountain, captured the wagons, burned them, and retreated to the top of the mountain, where they received orders to rejoin the main command, which was hard pressed in the canyon. The work of this detachment in destroying the supplies of Scurry's force was an important factor in the failure of the Southern troops to carry out the plan of attacking Fort Union in the Mora Valley. The battle in the canyon, which took place between the forces of Scurry and those of Slough, continued from 11 o'clock until 5 in the afternoon. Both sides established their batteries, supported by infantry and cavalry, in the road, and threw out skirmishers along the sides of the canyon to the right and left. Three times the Confederates attempted to take the Union batteries and each time they were repulsed. When Colonel Slough received news of the destruction of the Southern baggage train, he ordered a retreat to Pigeon's Ranch. Both leaders claimed a victory, but the retreat of the Southern force first to Santa Fe and then down the Rio Grande Valley showed that the battle had changed the invasion into a flight. Following the battle Colonel Slough led his force back to Fort Union. The Northern command having been ordered south it reached Galisteo on April 10, where the army was met by a staff officer from Canby's force.

Following the Battle of Valverde Canby remained at Fort Craig until April 1, when with a force of 860 regulars and 350 volunteers he marched northward to Albuquerque, arriving there April 8. A demonstration was made upon the town on April 9 for the purpose of determining the strength of the Confederates. Canby then marched to San Antonio, located twenty-five miles east of Albuquerque in the Sandia Mountains. He reported that he had hoped to make a junction with the troops from Fort Union south of the Confederate force, but had found this impossible. Canby had obtained information that the main Southern force had marched southward from Santa Fe when they received word that Canby was approaching Albuquerque. The Northern troops from Galisteo joined Canby's force in the Sandia Mountains at Tijeras on April 13. The united force then marched to Albuquerque, which had been deserted by the entire Confederate command. The Texans were overtaken at Peralta, on the east side of the Rio Grande opposite Los Lunas, April 18. After several skirmishes during the afternoon the Confederate command crossed to the west bank of the river, while Canby's troops followed along the east bank. At the conclusion of several days of marching along the river the Texan leaders determined to abandon all their supplies except rations for seven days and follow a route in the mountains west of the river in order to pass Fort Craig without a conflict. This movement was successfully accomplished and early in May General Sibley's army was located in detachments along the Rio Grande between Doña Ana and El Paso. In this manner the Confederate campaign into New Mexico was practically brought to a close.

The California volunteers arrived at the Rio Grande near Rincon between July 4 and August 15, 1862. Lieutenant-Colonel Eyre, who was in command of the advance party, planned to attack the Texan rear guard at Mesilla immediately, but found the road flooded. The crossing was made July 17 and the force then proceeded to Las Cruces, where it was learned that a portion of the Texans were in El Paso. The Confederates were not pursued due to instructions from Fort Craig to await orders before advancing. Colonel Steele with 400 Texans abandoned Fort Fillmore on July 8 and moved southward to Fort Bliss where he arrived four days later. The main part of the Confederate force left Fort Bliss for San Antonio, Texas, during June. General Carleton established his headquarters at Las Cruces August 15, and on the following day moved to Fort Bliss. Hart's Mill, previous to his arrival, had been occupied by a company of the California Cavalry. The command under Carleton proceeded down the Rio Grande to Fort Quitman, which was found deserted upon arrival, August 22. Fort Davis, on the road to San Antonio, was visited by a detachment, August 31, which found the fort abandoned. The reports of the retreat of the Texan force from New Mexico prove that supplies of all kinds were exhausted and that the spirits of the troops were depressed.

General Canby proposed the withdrawal of some of the regular troops from New Mexico, May 17, 1862. In July the Colorado Volunteers were withdrawn. After the arrival of the California forces Canby on August 10 recommended that the "California Column" be used to protect New Mexico and that the regular forces be withdrawn. Under instructions to turn over the Department of New Mexico to the next in rank to himself, Canby, August 26, ordered Carleton to proceed to Santa Fe and take charge of the Department. Leaving the District of Arizona in command of Col. Joseph R. West, General Carleton went to Santa Fe and on September 18 assumed control of the army in New Mexico. The regulars were sent to the Missouri Valley by way of the Santa Fe trail during the fall of 1862.

Indian campaigns of importance were carried on during the remaining years of the Civil war. They marked the beginning of the pacification of the Navaho and the Apache. The New Mexico and California volunteers numbering 4,000 on September 20, 1862, were almost three times stronger than any military force that the United States had ever had in New Mexico for the purpose of controlling the Indians. The instructions to military leaders were to make no peace treaties with the Apache and the Navaho, to accept no terms except unconditional surrender, and to pursue relentlessly these Indians who had for centuries preyed upon the Rio Grande settlements.



LAST PHOTOGRAPH OF "KIT" CARSON

Col. Christopher Carson was sent to Fort Stanton, October 12, 1862, to pacify the Mescalero Apache. Fort Sumner was established and an Indian reservation called "Bosque Redondo," forty miles square, was created in the present De Baca County. The officer in charge at Fort Sumner reported on January 9, 1863, that 248 Indians were under control. Carson sent 115 more Mescalero Apache to the reservation on March 5. Depredations did not entirely cease; a party of New Mexicans were killed March 25 between Fort Stanton and Fort McRae on the Rio Grande and an attack was made by these Indians upon Ruidoso early in May. Carleton wrote, February 1, 1863, that the Mescalero Apache had been subdued, that he hoped to break the power of the Gila Apache during the spring months, and that he would then turn his attention to the work of defeating the Navaho. General Carleton pointed out that it was necessary to defeat one group at a time as his force was not sufficient to divide.

The Gila Apache were attacked from Fort McLane, which was fifteen miles from the present Silver City. The Indian chief Mangus Colorado was killed January 18, 1863, while attempting to escape from the guard. Captain McCleave encountered a band of Apache near Pinos Altos mines on January 19 and killed eleven of them. The following day Captain Shirland had a battle with a band of Apache near Fort McLane, which resulted in the killing of nine Indians. A band of Gila Apache was successful in driving off a herd of stock from Fort McLane on March 22. They were followed by Captain McCleave until March 27, when a battle occurred in which twenty-five Indians were killed and the stock stolen from the fort recovered.

Col. Christopher Carson invaded the Navaho country in the summer of 1863, continued his campaign through the winter of 1863 and 1864, and succeeded in destroying the food supply of these Indians, who had made many peace treaties, but never had been known to keep one. In addition to the force under Carson, detachments were sent out from Fort Wingate into the Navaho country. On December 16, 1863, thirty-five Navaho, who had surrendered at Fort Wingate, were sent under guard to Fort Sumner. Carson set out from Fort Canby January 6, 1864, for the purpose of invading Canyon de Chelly, the stronghold of the Navaho which no former expedition had succeeded in penetrating. The force consisted of 389 soldiers. Captain Pfeifler was dispatched, January 2, with a detachment under orders to make his way down Cayon de Chelly from the eastern end. The main party under Carson proceeded to the western end where they were met by Captain Pfeiffer on January 14. Captain Carey was then sent through the canyon to destroy any supplies he might find and to warn the Indians that they must surrender or starve. The entire command returned to Fort Canby on January 23. Carson reported that 200 Navaho had surrendered and that the whole tribe would surrender in a short time. According to Carson the policy of removing the Navaho from their own country to Bosque Redondo in the Pecos Valley was the best solution for settling the problem of the Navaho. General Carleton, February 7, 1864, reported that the existing conflict was to be the last Navaho war, that all of the Indians would be on the reservation at Fort Sumner before the end of the year, that the Indian captives were destitute, and that if the Indian Bureau was going to do anything it should be done at once. In the opinion of General Carleton it was cheaper to feed the Navaho than to be fighting them continually. Several Navaho chiefs escaped from the Bosque Redondo reservation June 16, 1865, and in December some of the Mescalero Apache attempted to return southward to their former nomadic life, but no large number of Indians succeeded in leaving the reserve. The number of Apache and Navaho at Bosque Redondo was 7,622 on September 15, 1865. These Indians were supported by the subsistence department of the army. Attempts were made to make the reservation self-supporting through agriculture, but without marked success. General Carleton stated in the fall of 1865 that he planned to make a campaign against the Apache in the Mimbres Valley during the winter. Southwestern New Mexico Apache continued unconquered for twenty years. Although General Carleton's policy of conquering the Indians of New Mexico and placing them as prisoners on reservations was not completely carried out at this time, it was eventually adopted.

For the better protection of New Mexico, General Carleton established a number of new military ports. Fort Bascom, on the Canadian River, was built in 1863 to protect the settlements against the Comanche. It had accommodations for three companies. Fort Sumner was constructed in the fall of 1862 with quarters for six companies. The garrison was to control the Indians of the Bosque Redondo reservation. Fort Wingate on the southern border of the Navaho country was established as a two-company post in the fall of 1862. The original plans called for four companies, but the smaller force was found sufficient after the removal of the Navaho. Fort McRae, a two-company post, was built on the *Jornado del Muerto* in 1863 for the protection of travelers crossing the desert between Rincon and San Marcial. At the southern end of the *Jornado del Muerto*, near Robledo, Fort Seldon, a two-company post, was constructed in the spring of 1865. Fort Cummings, at Cooke's Spring in Southwestern New Mexico, was established in 1864 for the protection of the road between Mesilla and Tucson, which was often the scene of attacks by the Gila Apache. Other forts and stations in 1865 were: Fort Union, where supplies were kept at Mora; Albuquerque, a two-company post; Fort Marcy, with quarters for two companies, but only guards and escorts were stationed there; Fort Stanton, a two-company post; Fort Craig, with quarters for four companies and store-rooms for a large quantity of supplies; and Fort Bliss, one mile below Franklin, now El Paso. The total number of soldiers on duty in New Mexico in the summer of 1865 was 1,794.

The Santa Fe trade entered the second period of its growth when the United States occupied New Mexico in 1846. The trade between the Missouri Valley and Santa Fe in 1848 lost its international character and became a part of the growing commerce of the United States between the Mississippi Valley and the Pacific Coast. This commerce was effected by the demand for products in California created by the rush of a large population into the mining counties of the Sierra Nevada Mountains in 1849 and the years immediately following.

PUEBLO INDIAN GOVERNORS, 1863

The trade in New Mexico increased between 1846 and 1861 due to the demand of the army posts and the migration of people from the Mississippi Valley. James J. Webb, between 1844 and 1861, was engaged in bringing goods to Santa Fe and selling them at that point. He was in partnership first with George P. Doan, and later with William S. Messervy and John M. Kingsbury. The firm of Webb and Doan in 1846 took $15,000 worth of goods over the Santa Fe Trail. The total value of goods taken westward this year was one million dollars. Webb and Doan finding competition severe in Santa Fe took their merchandise to Chihuahua City, and San Juan, farther south in Mexico. In 1848 the firm increased its goods to be taken to Santa Fe to $30,000. They established a store, June 8, 1848, in the building formerly occupied by John Scolly.

George P. Doan withdrew from the partnership in 1849 and Webb was forced to continue the business upon his own credit, which at that time was not very extensive, as he had started his trading in 1844 on borrowed money. Webb took $20,000 worth of merchandise to Santa Fe in the summer of 1849. His stock was the largest in Santa Fe and his stock at that time amounted to $30,000, which he had built up from nothing in 1844. A new firm known as Webb and Messervy was formed in 1849 and continued until 1854. After 1850 the majority of goods of the concern was bought by Messervy in the markets of eastern states rather than buying at St. Louis as the firm had formerly done. Messervy retired from the business and returned to Salem, Massachusetts, but continued to buy for the new firm which was founded in 1854 when Kingsbury became a partner in the business. The partners, Webb and Kingsbury, continued to buy their goods in eastern cities, but instead of transporting them in their own personally conducted wagons, forwarded their wares through commission houses and regular freighters. The annual purchases amounted to $45,000, which after 1857 were sent westward in a spring and fall shipment. The firm of Webb and Kingsbury sold goods in all parts of New Mexico, in Western Texas and Northern Mexico.

Webb decided to return to his home in Connecticut in 1857, but planned to continue his connection with the Santa Fe store and act as eastern buyer for the establishment. Webb left Santa Fe for the East August 1, 1857. Purchases for the firm of Webb and Kingsbury were made until 1859. In the latter part of that year the partners decided that they had made enough and began the work of closing out their business which they completed in May, 1861.

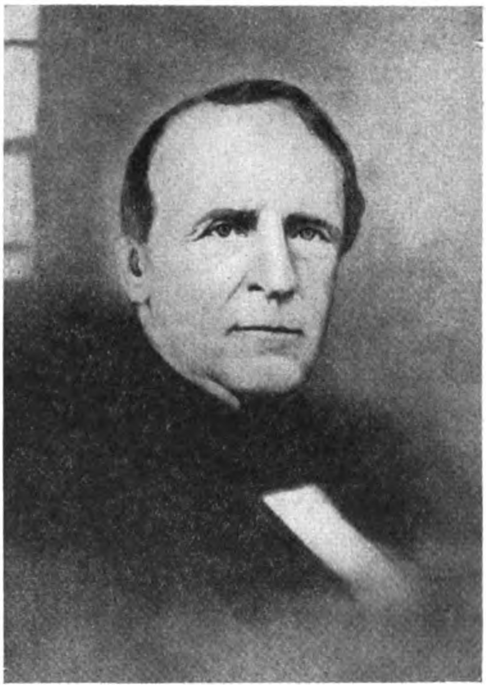
The trading career of these men formed a part of the early successful commercial activity in New Mexico, but their business did not result in the founding of a commercial house. The making of sufficient money to retire and return to the East was apparently the goal of the partners.

CHAPTER XXII

THE DEVELOPMENT OF NEW MEXICO, 1861-1878

The Territorial governorship during this period was held by the following men:

Henry Connelly		1861-	July, 1866
Robert B. Mitchell	Dec. 14,	1866-	1869
William A. Pile		1869-	1871
Marsh Giddings		1871-	June 3, 1875
Samuel B. Axtell	July 30,	1875-	1878



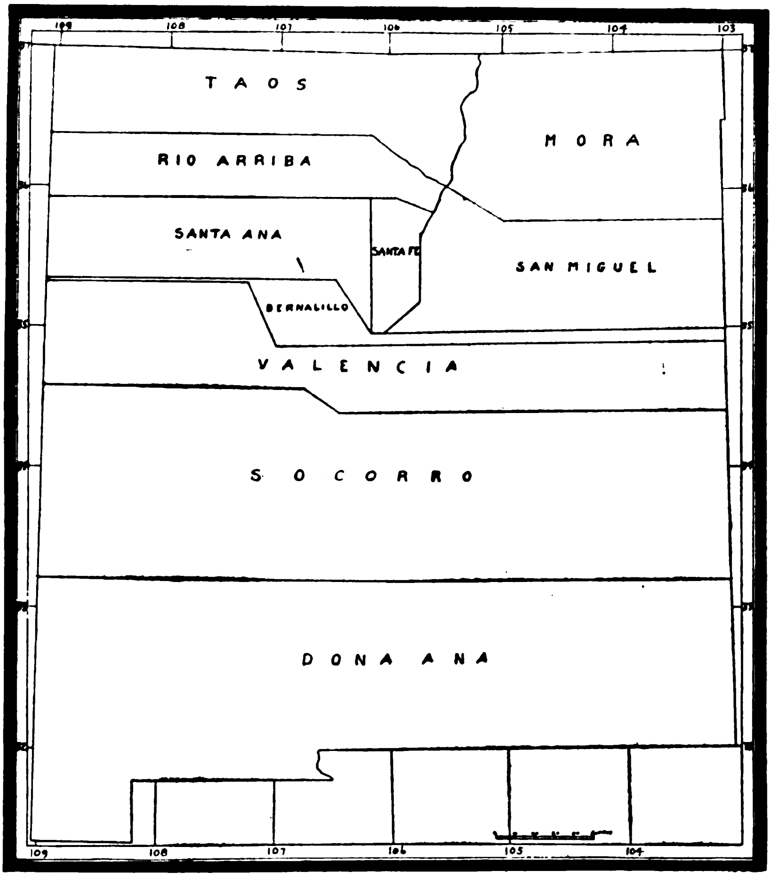
Governor Henry Connelly, the War Governor of New Mexico

Dr. Henry Connelly, the war governor of New Mexico, was appointed in the spring of 1861 by Abraham Lincoln and reappointed in 1865. For thirty years Connelly had been engaged in the mercantile business of the Southwest extending from the

Missouri Valley to Chihuahua, Mexico. His knowledge of the country and of the people of New Mexico was of great value to General Canby during the Civil war, and to General Carleton in the Indian campaigns which followed the driving out of the Texans. Governor Connelly died in July, 1866, before the end of his second term. W. F. M. Arny, the secretary of the Territory, was acting governor until the arrival of Robert B. Mitchell, who was appointed by Andrew Johnson on December 14, 1866. Governor Mitchell had been prominent in Kansas politics and an officer of the Kansas volunteers during the Civil war. President Grant appointed William A. Pile, who held office from 1869 until 1871, when he was succeeded by Marsh Giddings, who died while in office, June 3, 1875. William G. Ritch, the secretary of the Territory, was acting governor until July 30, 1875, when Samuel B. Axtell was inaugurated. Governor Axtell had been prominent in California politics and had been governor of the Territory of Utah. In 1878 Governor Axtell was removed and General Lew Wallace appointed to the office.

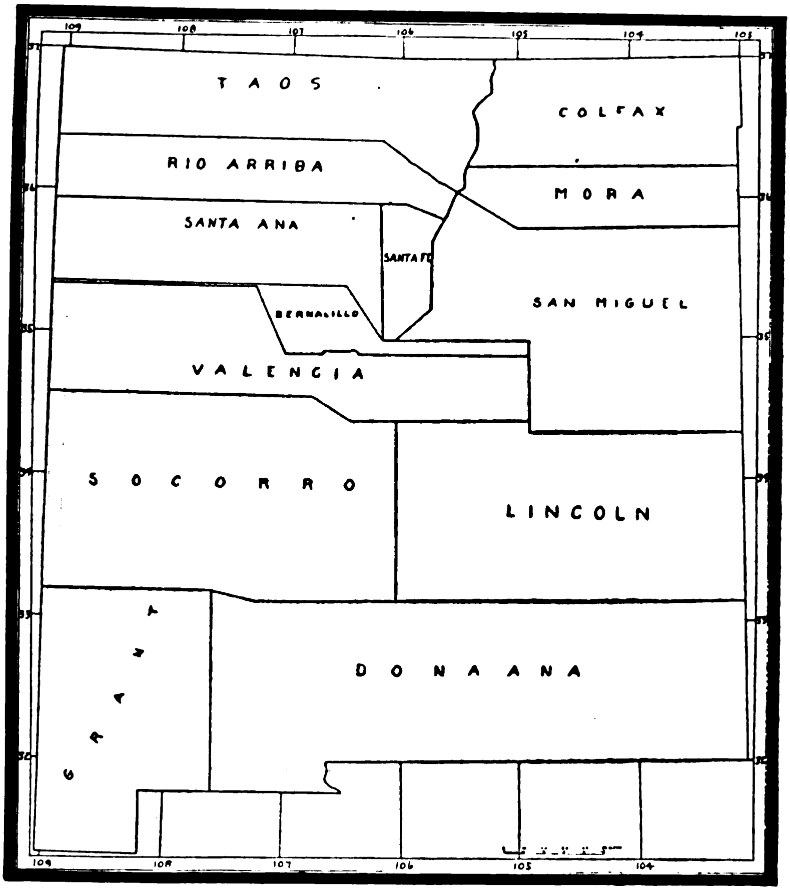
The Territory of New Mexico was reduced in size in 1861, when the Territory of Colorado was formed and in 1863 by the creation of the Territory of Arizona. The rush of population to the new mining region of the Upper Arkansas Valley in Utah Territory in 1859, resulted in the formation of the Colorado Territory. During 1859 and 1860 the government was carried on by "People's Courts" in which each community governed itself. Congress passed the Act creating the Territory of Colorado on February 28, 1861, and the officers were inaugurated on May 29, 1861. The boundaries of the Territory included all of New Mexico lying north of the thirty-seventh parallel of latitude. The area thus taken from New Mexico was bounded on the east by the 103 meridian; on the north by the thirty-eighth parallel; on the south by the thirty-seventh parallel; and on the west by the divide between the Rio Grande and the San Juan River.

The agitation for a Territory of Arizona began in August, 1856, when at a meeting held in Tucson the people elected a delegate to Congress, who asked for the creation of a new Territory from the southern part of New Mexico. In December, 1857, Senator Gwinn of California introduced a bill into Congress which had the support of the President and the Territory of New Mexico, but Congress took no action. The Legislature of the Territory of New Mexico suggested that, instead of making Arizona from the southern part of New Mexico as had been proposed, the new Territory be made from the western part of the Territory of New Mexico. A convention at Tucson, April 2, 1860, established a provisional government for the Territory of Arizona to operate until Congress should create a Territorial government. This convention declared that all of New Mexico south of latitude thirty-three degrees and forty minutes constituted Arizona Territory. The Legislature of New Mexico created Arizona County, February 1, 1861, from the western part of Dona Ana County, but no attention was paid to this arrangement by the people of Tucson. The southern part of New Mexico, south of the thirty-fourth parallel, was organized as the Territory of Arizona of the Confederate States of America by Colonel Baylor, August 1, 1861. This was a military government. The New Mexico Legislature abolished Arizona County January 18, 1862, and re-annexed the region to Dona Ana County. General Carleton in command of the California Volunteers occupied Tucson, May 20, 1862, and on June 8 created a military government for the Territory of Arizona, consisting of that part of New Mexico south of the Jornado del Muerto. A bill was introduced into the Congress of the United States in March of 1862, which provided for the establishing of the


109
108
107
106
105
104
103
TAOS
MORA
RIO ARRIBA
SANTA ANA
SANTA FE
SAN MIGUEL
BERNALILLO
VALENCIA
SOCORRO
DONA ANA

NEW MEXICO COUNTIES IN 1863

Territory of Arizona, and was passed February 24, 1863. According to this act all of New Mexico west of the thirty-second meridian west from Washington became the Territory of Arizona. The above mentioned dividing line is three miles west of the 109 meridian west from Greenwich, which is often spoken of as the line of division. The act of the New Mexico Legislature abolishing Arizona County was repealed January 28, 1863, but the county government was not established. The boundaries of New Mexico have not been changed since 1863.


109
108
107
106
105
104
103
TAOS
COLFAX
RIO ARRIBA
MORA
SANTA ANA
SANTA FE
BERNALILLO
SAN MIGUEL
VALENCIA
SOCORRO
LINCOLN
GRANT
DONA ANA
109
108
107
106
105
104

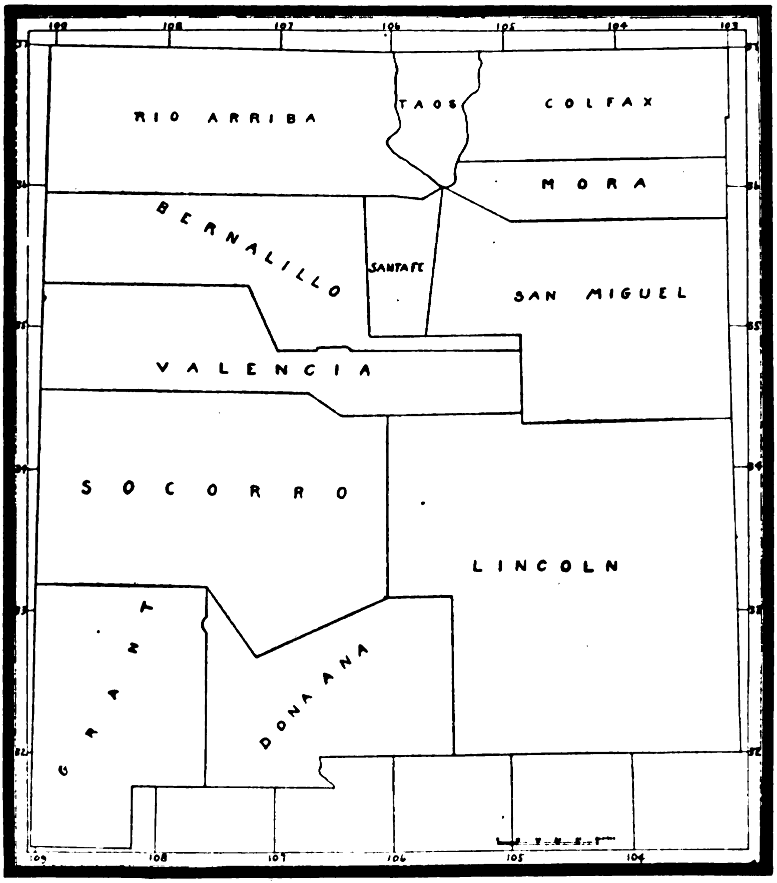
New Mexico Counties in 1870

Numerous changes were made in the political subdivisions of New Mexico between 1861 and 1880. New counties were created as the population increased in regions remote from the Rio Grande Valley. San Juan County was created in 1861, but abolished in 1862 before the county government was organized.

San Miguel County was enlarged to include the eastern part of Bernalillo and Valencia counties before 1870. Grant County was established, January 30, 1868, comprising the western part of Dona Ana County. The development of mines was the cause of the settlements which demanded a subdivision of Dona Ana County. Lincoln County, in its original form, was created January 16, 1869, from the western part of Socorro County. The beginning of cattle raising and mining explain the demand for this new county. The county was enlarged February 15, 1878, to include the eastern part of Dona Ana County. This change was due to the extensive development of cattle raising in the Pecos Valley. Colfax County was established by an act of the Territorial Legislature January 25, 1869, from the northern part of Mora County. Cattle raising and mining in the northeastern section of the Territory explain the demand for a new county. Santa Ana County was abolished January 13, 1876, and the area annexed to Bernalillo County. This is the only instance in the history of New Mexico of the destruction of a county in which a county government had been established. Taos and Rio Arriba counties were completely changed by an act of the Legislature passed on February 10, 1880. Taos County was cut down to its present size, and the western part of that county was annexed to Rio Arriba County. This was probably due to the fact that the Chama Valley was more accessible to the county seat of Rio Arriba than to that of Taos County.

The Legislature of New Mexico in 1861 consisted of two houses, a council of thirteen members, and a House of Representatives of twenty-six members. Annual sessions continued until 1869, when by Act of Congress biennial sessions were provided. According to the apportionment, February 1, 1861, each county was a council and a House of Representatives district. All of the counties had one councilman, except San Miguel, Taos, and Rio Arriba, each of which had two. All of the counties had two representatives, except Santa Ana with one; Santa Fe, three; Rio Arriba, three; Taos, four; and San Miguel, four. In 1878 there were twelve counties, nine council districts, and ten House districts. The number of councilmen and representatives were the same as in 1861. Lincoln, Dona Ana and Grant counties together had one councilman; Rio Arriba, Socorro and Santa Fe each had one councilman; Taos, San Miguel, Bernalillo and Valencia, each had two councilmen. The membership in the House of Representatives was divided among the counties as follows: Colfax, one; Mora, Rio Arriba, Socorro, each two; Grant, Dona Ana, and Lincoln combined, two; Taos, Santa Fe, Bernalillo and Valencia, each three; and San Miguel, five. The districting for representatives and councilmen prior to 1878 does not show any over representation of any particular district. The apportionment was strictly by population as a comparison of the above districts with the county census returns of 1860 and 1870 shows. In other words, there was no gerrymandering of the districts.

The judicial districts were completely changed in 1860. Prior to that date the first district consisted of Santa Fe, San Miguel and Santa Ana counties; the second district, Bernalillo, Valencia, Socorro and Dona Ana counties; and the third district, Taos and Rio Arriba counties. The districts as arranged in 1860 were not changed in this period, except that new counties were added to districts at the time of the creation of the counties. The first district comprised the counties of San Miguel, Santa Fe, Santa Ana, Mora, Taos and Rio Arriba. Colfax County was added to this district in 1869 and Santa Ana County was abolished in 1876. The second district consisted of Bernalillo and Valencia counties. Sorocco County was later taken from the third district


RIO ARRIBA
TAOS
COLFAX
MORA
BERNALILLO
SANTA FE
SAN MIGUEL
VALENCIA
SOCORRO
LINCOLN
GRANT
DONA ANA
109
108
107
106
105
104
103

NEW MEXICO COUNTIES IN 1880

and added to the second. The third district included Socorro and Dona Ana counties. Grant County was annexed to the third judicial district in 1868, at the time of its creation, and Lincoln County was annexed in 1869. No changes were made in the judicial districts between 1870 and 1880.

The delegates in Congress representing New Mexico between 1861 and 1879 were: John S. Watts, 1861-1863; Francisco Perea, 1863-1865; J. Francisco Chaves, 1865-1871; José Manuel Gallegos, 1871-1873; Stephen B. Elkins, 1873-1877; and Trinidad Romero, 1877-1879. There were two disputed elections for delegate in this period, both of which were due to claims of fraudulent elections. The election of Francisco Perea in 1863 was contested by José Manuel Gallegos. The parties were ordered to take evidence to substantiate their claims to the office. Gallegos failed and the House agreed to seat Perea. In 1867 the election of C. P. Clever was contested by J. Francisco Chaves. It was shown that there had been frauds which made it necessary to throw out some of the votes for both candidates. The House of Representatives committee on elections reported that Chaves has 389 votes more than Clever and the House voted to seat Chaves.

The delegates in Congress occupied their time in getting appropriations to pay volunteers, to construct public buildings, and in trying to have New Mexico made a state. The first move for statehood in this period was made by the Territorial Legislature, January 31, 1866, when it passed an act authorizing the governor to call a constitutional convention to draw up a state constitution. For some unknown reason this convention never met. A new plan was adopted in 1870 by some of the members of the Legislature, who had a state constitution drawn up and succeeded in passing an act, February 7, 1870, which provided for the submission of the document to a vote of the people. The election for some reason was never called. A similar scheme for statehood was adopted by the following Legislature, February 1, 1872. The act provided for an election to be held on the first Monday in June. This election was held, but Governor Giddings refused to call the election for state officers, claiming that the constitution had failed in ratification. It was stated that some counties had made no returns. Santa Fe County, with a population of about 10,000, cast 554 in favor of the State constitution and 346 against it. The New Mexico Legislature, which met on the last Monday in December, 1873, passed a memorial asking the Congress of the United States to pass an enabling act for the admission of New Mexico as a State.

The bills introduced into Congress providing statehood for New Mexico were given scant consideration until 1873. One bill, introduced in 1869, proposed to change the name of New Mexico to Lincoln, and admit the region as a state. Stephen B. Elkins succeeded in having introduced a bill for the admission of New Mexico into the forty-third Congress and made a speech in favor of the measure, May 21, 1874. The bill passed the House by a vote of 165 to 54, and after lengthy discussion passed the Senate, February 24, 1875, by a vote of 32 to 11, but with an amendment which made it necessary for the House to again consider the bill. There were only ten days left of the session and it would therefore necessitate a suspension of the rules, which required a two-thirds vote of the House in order that the New Mexico bill be considered at that session of the House. The change made by the Senate in the bill was not opposed in the House. During these last days of the session, a member of the House from Michigan made a speech in which he made a violent attack upon the South. According to the story, the delegate from New Mexico was in the lobby talking with friends during the speech and had not heard it, but after the completion of the occasion joined the group who were congratulating the speaker. This act upon the part of Elkins, the delegate from New Mexico, lost the necessary support in the House from the Southern States and although the two-thirds vote for the suspension of the rules for consideration of the New Mexico enabling bill was obtained, the final vote resulted in the defeat of the bill. It seems very probable that New Mexico would have become a state under the bill of this session of Congress, had Elkins been more discreet.

In the following Congress, the forty-fourth, a bill for statehood was again introduced by Stephen B. Elkins. The bill passed the Senate, March 10, 1876, by a vote of thirty-five to fifteen. It was reported favorably in the House by the Committee on Territories, but the session closed before the bill came up for discussion. This was the last important attempt until the latter part of the '80s to change the government from a Territory to a State.

There was no system of taxation in New Mexico of personal and real property until 1869. From the time of the Kearny Code license charges were made from which the Territorial revenues were obtained. In 1860 the total assessed value in New Mexico was placed at $21,000,000 in round numbers; in 1870, at $10,000,000; and in 1880, at 11,000,000. The law passed by the Territorial Legislature, February 2, 1869, provided that a tax of twenty cents should be collected for Territorial purposes and five cents for county purposes on each $100 valuation. The probate judge of the counties was placed in charge of making the assessments and equalization of the same in cases of disagreement. The sheriff was made collector and was authorized to sell property upon which taxes were delinquent. The law exempted from taxation public and church property, individual property to the amount of $500, and family provisions to the amount of $100. The total tax collected for 1870 was $61,000, of which Santa Fe County paid $15,000; San Miguel, $10,000;

Bernalillo, $6,000; Colfax, $6,000. Santa Ana County paid the least, namely, $281. Taxes raised in Grant County amounted to but $428. The tax collected in 1880 was $127,000. The Territorial debt increased from $8,000 in 1870 to $85,000 in 1880.

From time to time changes were made in the revenue law of 1869. On January 31, 1872, the Legislature passed an act providing for the levying of a poll tax for school purposes. A new apportionment of taxes was made on January 8, 1874, which divided the money as follows: One-half for the Territorial government, one-fourth for the county government and one-fourth for the support of schools. In 1872 and 1876 laws were passed concerning the licenses of wholesale dealers. On February 15, 1878, an act was passed which exempted railroads from taxation for a period of six years from the time of completion. By the law passed January 28, 1880, the tax levy was raised from twenty-five cents to $1 on each $100 assessed valuation. This law marked the first notable increase in taxation.

The development of the cattle and sheep raising industries in New Mexico between 1860 and 1880 caused an important increase in wealth and population. The basis for this growth was the opening up of areas outside of the Rio Grande Valley which for centuries had been controlled by the Apache and Navaho Indians. Although trouble continued with the Apache east of the Rio Grande and with the Navaho in Northwestern New Mexico, these ranges were not greatly hindered by the Indians. Southwestern New Mexico was not so fortunate. The Gila Apache continued to retard the development of the region until the '80s. Cattle were introduced into New Mexico in large numbers from Texas. The ranges of the Rocky Mountains were stocked from New Mexico. Merino sheep brought from California improved the quality of the flocks in New Mexico. The ranges north of New Mexico received a large part of their original stock from the Territory. The statistics of cattle and sheep are not accurate because the range stock was not enumerated but estimated. Therefore round numbers are probably as accurate as the exact numbers of the census reports. There was a great increase in the twenty years between 1860 and 1880: Cattle from 90,000 to 350,000, and sheep from 830,000 to 4,000,000.

The sheep drives from California were first undertaken in 1876 and were continued until 1880. During these years a total of 40,000 grade Merino sheep were brought into New Mexico from California. Only a part of this number remained in the Territory as 13,000 were taken to Colorado. The greatest expense of these drives was from the death of the sheep. Thirty-four per cent of the 25,000 sheep brought from California in 1876 and 1877 died on the way. Colonel Stoneroad in 1876 made one of these drives. He brought 10,000 Merino sheep from Merced County, California, to San Miguel County, New Mexico, a distance of 1,600 miles. Seven and a half months were required to make the journey. Others engaged in bringing Merino sheep into New Mexico were Robinson, Clancey, Zuber, Booth and McKellar.

The ownership of three-fourths of the sheep in New Mexico in 1880 was vested in some twenty families, four-fifths of whom were native New Mexicans. Approximately 3,000,000 sheep were included in these twenty properties, which made the average number of sheep for these holdings 150,000. Wool, rather than mutton, was the chief object of sheep raising in New Mexico. The wool-clip in 1850 was 32,000 pounds; in 1860, 493,000; in 1870, 685,000; and in 1880, 4,000,000 pounds.

The driving of Texas cattle into New Mexico was first undertaken in 1865. Indian wars in Western Texas, particularly with the Comanche, continued into the early '70s while Eastern New Mexico after 1865 was a comparatively safe place so far as danger from the Indians was concerned. A large number of Texas cattle were brought into the Northeastern part of New Mexico in the later '60s as the result of purchases made from Texas stockmen who found their lives and stock in danger of destruction by the Indians. John C. Dawson, in 1859, made one of the earliest drives from Texas into Colorado. The beginning of driving Texas cattle in large numbers into Southeastern New Mexico was due to the demand created in 1864 and 1865 at the Bosque Redondo Indian Reservation, in the vicinity of Fort Sumner, where General Carleton collected about 8,000 Navaho and Apache Indians, who had to be fed by the United States. This market was not sufficient for the numbers of cattle brought from Texas. Dawson went to Denver and succeeded in making contracts for cattle to be driven from Texas through New Mexico to Colorado. The stocking of the ranges of Idaho and Montana and the feeding of railroad workers and miners created a good market. The Pecos and the Canadian Valleys were the only routes that could be followed from Western Texas to the Rocky Mountain region. The largest cattle drive through New Mexico took place in 1874, when 110,000 head were moved northward through Roswell. This seems to have been the height of the development as the number of cattle had increased before that date and decreased in the following years. It was the custom for Texas cattlemen to bring their herds to the Pecos Valley, and sell them to such men as Goodnight, Chisom, Dawson and Stockton, who drove them northward through Eastern New Mexico to the markets in Colorado, Idaho and Montana. The route commonly used was from West Central Texas to New Mexico and Colorado. It was known as the Goodnight-Chisom Trail. The route began near Fort Concho, Texas, followed up the Concho Valley to its head, then southwest about ninety miles across the Staked Plains to the Horsehead Crossing of the Pecos River about 190 miles south of Pope's Well near the Texas-New

Mexico boundary. The main trail followed the Pecos Valley to Santa Rosa, crossed the divide to the Canadian Valley, which was followed to its head, where the trail crossed the Raton Mountains into Colorado.

John S. Chisom was one of the Texas cattlemen who extended their activities into New Mexico. In 1867 he had a contract for furnishing 10,000 beef cattle to the Indian reservation at Bosque Redondo. Two cattle ranches were owned by Chisom in 1873: the one, two miles north of Carlsbad, stocked with 11,000 head of cattle; and the other, at Bosque Grande, twenty-seven miles north of Roswell, where he had 15,000 cattle. The Indian reservations, which had been recently established, furnished a local market. Beef cattle were furnished, under contract with the United States, to the Mescalero Reservation and to the San Carlos Reserve in Arizona. In 1875 cattle numbering 6,000 head were driven to the latter reservation from the Pecos Valley. During the following year 6,000 cattle were driven to Fort Dodge, Kansas, which was the closest railroad point of that day; and 4,000 were driven to Arizona. In spite of serious losses both from the Indian and white thieves, Chisom owned about 90,000 head of cattle during the years 1875 and 1876.

An incident in the early days of cattle raising in the southeastern part of New Mexico was the so-called Lincoln County war. A series of shooting scrapes characterized the struggle which grew out of charges made by rival cattle owners who claimed cattle had been stolen. Alexander McSwain and John H. Tunstel formed a partnership in 1873 for conducting a cattle business at the town of Lincoln. McSwain was also lawyer for John S. Chisom. Emil Fritz and L. G. Murphy, in the later '60s, established a cattle business at Lincoln. In the early '70s Fritz died, and J. J. Dolan, John Riley and L. G. Murphy formed a partnership. The immediate trouble grew out of a lawsuit between Mrs. Scholan, advised by Dolan, and Alexander McSwain. The ranch of McSwain's partner, Tunstel, was attached early in the year 1877, and immediately after serving the writ Tunstel was killed by the sheriff's party. Friends of McSwain, of the deceased Tunstel and of the Chisom interests formed one side, while Dolan, Riley and Murphy supporters made up the opposition. The offensive was taken by a McSwain party of five, including W. H. Bonney, known as "Billy, the Kid," who on April 1, 1878, killed Sheriff William Brady and George Hineman near McSwain's store. Several fights occurred between the factions during the spring. Finally Sheriff Peppin, who was appointed to succeed Brady by Governor Axtell, determined, in July, 1878, to arrest McSwain and some fifteen other men who were stationed at McSwain's store, and called upon the United States military force for assistance. McSwain, who had taken no part in the combats, was killed while "Billy, the Kid," the most prominent of the lawless element, escaped. He was captured in the spring of 1881 and was placed in jail at Lincoln, but made his escape, killing the two men in charge of the jail. On July 15, 1881, Pat Garrett, the sheriff of Lincoln County, and two deputies discovered "Billy, the Kid," at the house of Pete Maxwell, near Fort Sumner. The outlaw walked into Maxwell's bedroom and was shot by Garrett.

The railroad development of New Mexico began in the last years of this period. Plans for railroads to the Pacific Coast through New Mexico had been considered since the early '50s, but little was accomplished until the '70s. The first trans-continental line was completed in 1869, the Central Pacific Railroad building from California to Ogden, and the Union Pacific from the Missouri River to Ogden. The Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Railroad was built across central Kansas to the Colorado line by 1873. Between 1874 and 1877 the road was built to Pueblo and a terminal was gained at Kansas City. When the Pueblo & Arkansas Valley line was begun in 1874, it was the policy to extend to Pueblo, where it would connect with the Denver & Rio Grande Railroad, which would give connection with Denver, Canyon City and ultimately with Santa Fe and Mexico City. The Santa Fe Railroad until 1877 had no other plans than to remain a local road, although the original idea of the project had been to construct a Pacific railroad. The policy was changed in 1877, when W. B. Strong was made general manager and planned for the extension of the line to Santa Fe.

The New Mexico Legislature passed an act on February 2, 1878, which required the payment of 10 per cent of the capital stock of any company into its treasury before beginning operations. This was a hindrance to the promoters of the Santa Fe Railroad. It was discovered that the new act had not yet gone into effect and that the older law for incorporation of railroads was not unduly restrictive. Under the older law a company called the New Mexico & Southern Pacific Railroad was incorporated. The Legislature passed an act February 15, 1878, which exempted from taxation all railroads named in the articles of incorporation for a period of six years. No railroad could be exempted from taxation for a longer period than twelve years from the date of the beginning of building. When Manager Strong met President Nickerson at Pueblo, the latter was disappointed, because he had hoped that a subsidy would be obtained from the New Mexico Legislature. He did not realize the feeling held by some New Mexicans against the building of a railroad into New Mexico. The president of the Senate of the New Mexico Legislature is said to have remarked concerning railroads: "We don't want you damned Yankees in the country. We can't compete with you; you will drive us all out, and we shall have no home left us. We won't have you here." This, however, was not the general sentiment, as is shown by the favorable legislation which was passed. The interview between Strong and Nickerson took place February 26, 1878, and it resulted in Strong gaining permission to spend at least $20,000 to extend the line to Raton Pass. A. A. Robinson was immediately instructed to occupy Raton Pass.

The Denver & Rio Grande by June, 1872, had built 118 miles from Denver to Pueblo, and in October of the same year a branch of thirty-seven miles was opened to Labran, eight miles from Canyon City. The road was pushed southward to Fort Garland, in the San Luis Valley, in 1877, and by June, 1878, had reached Alamosa. Rivalry between the Santa Fe and the Denver & Rio Grande developed with the entrance of the Santa Fe into Colorado. In February both companies were building toward Raton Pass. During the last days of the month Raton Pass was contested, resulting in the Santa Fe gaining control of the route and the withdrawal of the Denver & Rio Grande. In April the contest for the right of way was transferred to the Royal Gorge, the legal fight continuing until October 19, 1878, when President Nickerson of the Santa Fe leased the Denver & Rio Grande for a period of thirty years. The agreement was put into effect December 13, 1878. The New Mexico extension contracts were let in May to the amount of $1,500,000 for the first 100 miles southward from La Junta, and plans were made for continuation of the line 120 miles farther to Las Vegas. The line was opened to Trinidad September 1, 1878. The tunnel necessary at Raton Pass was begun, while a temporary line built over the Pass was completed December 7, 1878. Thus it seemed that the two railroads on the northern border of New Mexico had been united into one strong company, but trouble followed during the next year which completely changed the situation.

The mining activities in New Mexico between 1861 and 1878 resulted in the development of some rich camps, as in the case of Elizabethtown, and the location of a large number of mining districts. Upon the finding of metals in various regions, mining districts were formed. It was customary for the group of miners interested in the claims of a given location to draw up rules and regulations for the district, appoint a recorder of claims and conduct the affairs of the district. The law passed January 11, 1876, by the New Mexico Legislature required that claims be recorded with the clerk of the probate court of the counties. The only trace of the existence of such rules and regulations that has been found is in the statement of W. H. Bucher, who said that the rules and regulations of the Las Animas Mining District, which was established in 1877, were in his possession as late as 1907.

The earliest list of mining districts accessible is that of 1885. Grant County, with twenty-one districts, had the largest number at that time. Socorro had thirteen districts; Sierra, ten; Taos, six; Lincoln, six; Bernalillo, six; San Miguel, six; Santa Fe, two; Dona Ana, four; Valencia, two; Colfax, one; and Mora, one.

The principal producing gold areas prior to 1878 were the Moreno gold fields, which created the town of Elizabethtown; the Old and New Placers, between Santa Fe and Albuquerque; and the Pinos Altos and Central City districts, in the neighborhood of Silver City. The Old Placer and New Placer Districts, near the towns of Dolores and Tuerto, were considered in 1869 the richest in New Mexico. The absence of water made gulch mining almost impossible. William Kroenig and others made a survey which showed that water could be brought from the Pecos River to the gulches of the Tuerto and the Galisteo Valley. It was believed that millions in gold could be washed out with a supply of water. In 1869 very little was being taken from the Old and New Placer Districts. The population of Dolores at the time was 150, and the value of gold taken out, $10,000. Only rough estimates exist for mineral production in New Mexico prior to 1880. The Old and New Placers were said to have produced $3,000,000 worth of gold, the large part of which was mined before 1860.

The largest gold producing district for the period between 1860 and 1876 was located in the Moreno Valley, on the Maxwell Grant, in the western part of Colfax County. The discovery of gold in the vicinity of Baldy Mountain was made in October, 1866, by Kelly, who had been sent to Baldy Mountain in company with Larry Bronson and Peter Kinsinger to develop some copper claims for William Kroenig and W. H. Moore. Kelly washed some of the gravel along Willow Creek and to his surprise found gold in it. After several days' work, the three men had produced a considerable amount of placer gold. They returned to Fort Union, reported their find, and made preparations for beginning work in the spring of 1867. The first claims were marked off along Willow Creek in May, 1867, by Arthur & Company, Larry Bronson being a member of the organization. About the same time gold was discovered by Fred Phefer at Michigan Gulch, where Elizabethtown developed into the chief settlement of the district. During 1868 and 1869 claims were staked out along all of the gulches of the Moreno Valley west of Baldy Mountain, and in Ute Creek, east of the mountain. Aztec mine and Montezuma mine were discovered in 1868 and 1869. The Moreno Water and Mining Company built a ditch forty-one miles in length, at a cost of $210,000, which brought water from Red River, in Taos County, to Grouse Gulch, lying between Elizabethtown and Baldy Mountain. The work was begun May 12, 1868, and the first water was delivered on July 9, 1869. The loss of water in the ditch proved so great that the undertaking was not a financial success. Elizabethtown in 1870 was credited with a population of 7,000. It was due to this mining settlement that Colfax County was created, January 25, 1869, from the northern part of Mora County, with Elizabethtown as the county seat. The removal of the county seat to Cimarron in 1872 was due to the decline of placer mining in the Moreno Valley. The total production of gold for the year from July, 1868, to July, 1869, was placed at $500,000. During the first four years of its existence, 1868-1872, the Aztec mine produced $1,000,000 worth of gold. In 1875 the amount of gold taken from the district was only $50,000. Although larger amounts were mined in later years than in 1875, there were few years prior to 1915 that more than $100,000 was produced.

The Pinos Altos Mining District, five miles north of Silver City, was opened in May, 1860, by Colonel Snively and a party of California miners. Due to Indian attacks and the Civil war, the miners, who had come to the region during 1860, departed. The Pinos Altos Mining Company, which was organized by Virgil Mastin and others in 1866, built the first quartz mill in southern New Mexico at Pinos Altos during 1867. The quartz lode claims recorded at Pinos Altos prior to September 19, 1869, numbered 213. The district by 1869 had passed through its first period of prosperity, half of the 200 houses of the town of Pinos Altos being empty. Important developments did not take place in the district until in the late '80s, when some of the mines produced heavily.

The Central District included the Hanover mine and the Santa Rita mines. From the Hanover mine in the period between 1858 and 1861 copper was shipped to the Texas coast, and from there to New York, but little or no production marked the period from 1861 to 1878. The same can be said for the Santa Rita mines, although the period was important in the history of the Santa Rita mines because it was during this time that the title to the mines was cleared up. In 1873 M. D. Hayes, representing Denver mining interests, bought up claims to the Santa Rita mines and asked for a patent, but the United States Land Office refused to issue the patents, holding that the title to the mines was vested in the heirs of Francisco Elguea. While the question of the rights of the Elguea heirs was being appealed to the Secretary of the Interior, between April 15, 1873, and November 6, 1873, Hayes succeeded in finding in Mexico the persons having interests in the mines and in buying their rights. Having produced the claims of the Elguea heirs, Hayes was then able to obtain a patent to the properties. During the later '70s about forty tons of copper ore were hauled to the railroad in Colorado and shipped to Baltimore. The famous Santa Rita copper mines can not be said to have produced any very large amount of copper prior to 1878. Railroad transportation was necessary before these mines could be successfully operated. The Lone Mountain subdistrict northeast of Santa Rita was discovered in 1871 by Frank Bisbee, who operated a mill on good silver ores for several years, after which the mine was closed down. The Mimbres District, in the vicinity of Georgetown, became known in 1866, but it was not until about 1875 that silver was produced in large quantities.

The Chloride Flat District, near Silver City, was discovered in the spring of 1871 by John Bullard and others. It was this rich silver region that gave the name Silver City to the principal town in southwestern New Mexico. The district produced $3,250,000 before the silver vein was worked out.

The Las Animas District was located by Dan Dugan and Dave Stitzel, April 20, 1877. The region contained both placers and lodes of gold. The town of Hillsboro, founded in August, had become a thriving mining settlement by the end of the year. The Lake Valley District, fifteen miles south of Hillsboro, ranks among the heaviest producing districts of New Mexico. The silver ore deposit was discovered by George W. Lufkin in August, 1878, and a mining rush followed which created the settlement of Lake Valley. The Black Range District and the town of Kingston, eight miles west of Hillsboro, resulted from the discovery of silver by Chapman, Heard and Phillips in October, 1880.

The Magdalena District, west of Socorro, which has been a heavy producer of lead and zinc, was discovered in the spring of 1866 by J. S. Hutchason. The Juanita, Graphic and Kelly mines were located within a few weeks after the finding of mineral in the region. Hardscrabble mine was located by Baker and sold in 1868.

The Cooney District, in the southwestern part of Catron County, was first prospected in the spring of 1876 by James C. Cooney and a group of men from Georgetown and Central. Due to Indian hostilities, the claims were abandoned, but relocated in 1878. The Cooney mine, discovered in 1876, became a heavy producer at the later time.

At the Nogal District, between Carrizozo and Capitan, in the southern part of Lincoln County, both placer and lode claims were discovered before 1870; the placer gold was first found in 1865 in Dry Gulch, and the American mine, a lode claim, in 1868. Not until after 1880 were there important developments in this region.

The White Oaks District, about ten miles northeast of Carrizozo, in Lincoln County, was not opened until 1879. In the fall of that year the Homestake mine was discovered by Jack Winters. Old Abe mine was opened in the winter of 1879 and 1880.

Cook's Peak Mining District, in the northern part of Luna County, twenty miles north of Deming, has produced a large amount of lead. The district was first prospected in 1876 by Ed Orr, but it was not until 1880 that the chief producing mines were located.

It has already been noted that the development of the cattle and sheep industry in the years between the Civil war and 1880 was possible on account of a partial settlement of the Indian problem. This was particularly true in eastern New Mexico, although there was continued difficulty after 1865. However, the military force was strong enough to punish outbreaks upon the part of the Indians. The principal center of conflicts was in southwestern New Mexico and southeastern Arizona. The Bosque Redondo Reservation was abandoned and the present Navaho Reservation established. Also the Mescalero Apache and the Jicarilla Apache Reservations were set aside.

The Mescalero Apache and the Navaho at Bosque Redondo were not able to support themselves and were dissatisfied with the reservation. After an experiment of four years, it was decided to abandon the reservation, to return the Navaho to the northwestern part of New Mexico and to return the Mescalero Apache to the northeastern part of the present Otero County. The treaty with the Navaho made June 1, 1868, by Gen. William T. Sherman is the only cession treaty made with the Indians of New Mexico. Peace treaties had been made earlier and agreements for the setting aside of reservations at later times, but the only treaty providing for the cession of lands and the setting aside of a reservation was this one with the Navaho. The Navaho agreed to cede all claims to lands and receive a reservation. The lands included in the Navaho Reservation as originally established had the following boundaries: On the north the thirty-seventh parallel, which was the northern boundary of New Mexico; on the south, an east and west line running through Fort Defiance, which was in latitude thirty-five degrees and forty-five minutes. The western boundary was fixed on the meridian of longitude 109 degrees and thirty minutes, with the provision that the reserve should include all of Canyon de Chelly. The eastern boundary was placed on a north and south line running through old Fort Lyon, which was about the meridian 108 degrees and fifteen minutes. Ten years later the western boundary of the reservation was fixed on the 110 meridian of longitude. The United States agreed to build agency buildings, including residences, shops and a school. It was provided that all disputes must be submitted to the agent for settlement. The treaty further stated that any Indian might make application for lands totalling 160 acres and receive exclusive use of the area as described in the record made at the agency office. The Indians agreed to send their children to school and the United States stipulated that it would furnish a teacher and schoolhouse for every thirty children for a period of ten years. Tools and seed to the amount of $100 were furnished by the government to each Indian who planned to till the soil, and $25 for each of the two succeeding years. The government further agreed to furnish each Indian $5 worth of goods annually for a period of ten years, and $10 worth of supplies was to be given annually to each Indian who would engage in agricultural or mechanical pursuits. Also the United States agreed to furnish 15,000 sheep, to pay the cost of removal from Bosque Redondo to the Navaho

Reservation, and to supply beef and corn for relief of those without supplies during the winter of 1868 and 1869.

The Navaho treaty was ratified by the Senate and proclaimed by the President on August 12, 1868. It became the basis for all later relations with the Navaho Indians. Through the period of the '70s there were no general outbreaks, but there were continual complaints from the agents that the appropriations were insufficient to build the agency and support a school.

The Jicarilla Apache, some of whom made their headquarters near Abiquiu, and some in the vicinity of Cimarron, in the Canadian Valley, were assigned a reservation in the San Juan Valley by an executive order of the President of the United States, March 25, 1874. These Indians made complaints against the location, stating that the reservation was in the region of their enemies. As a result an executive order was issued two years later restoring the reservation to the public domain. The present Jicarilla Apache Reservation was first set aside west of the Tierra Amarilla grant, in the upper Chama Valley, in Rio Arriba County, September 21, 1880.

The Mescalero Indians had left the Bosque Redondo Reservation prior to June, 1868, without permission and the government decided to set aside a reservation in the vicinity of Fort Stanton, which was done by an executive order of the President, May 29, 1873. The reserve in the mountains of the northeastern part of the present Otero County was in the heart of the country ranged over by these Apache. The boundaries of the reservation were changed February 2, 1874, and October 20, 1875, but the general location was not changed. The problems of the reservation were not different from those on other Indian reserves, which consisted of controlling the natives, developing agriculture and carrying on schools.

The Southern Apache, in southwestern New Mexico, came into conflict with the mining population of that region. Trouble occurred in 1871, resulting in the death of John Bullard, a prominent citizen of Silver City. Congress appropriated $30,000 to move the Southern Apache to a reservation. The citizens of Silver City passed a resolution to the following effect: "Resolved, that by the expenditure of $30,000 among volunteers, the Indians can be gathered upon reservations where they will stay forever." On November 9, 1871, a reservation was created embracing the headwaters of the Tularosa Valley, in the present Catron County. An attempt was made to move the Southern Apache to this reserve, but the plan failed and the lands were restored to the public domain three years later, November 24, 1874. A second reservation was established for the Southern Apache at Hot Springs in the Cañada Alamosa, April 9, 1874. Trouble followed and it was decided to move the Southern Apache to the San Carlos Reservation, in Arizona. This was done in May, 1875, much against the wishes of the Indians, and the Hot Springs Reservation was restored to the public domain August 25, 1877. The Indian chief, Victorio, after two unsuccessful attempts to escape from the San Carlos Reservation, succeeded in April, 1879, and determined to die rather than return to the reserve. Indian depredations continued for a number of years, that is until the final capture of Geronimo, the successor to Victorio, in 1887.

The military force in New Mexico was decreased and a number of forts abandoned in the period between 1865 and 1879. The military establishment in the New Mexico Department, under Brigadier-General Carleton, March, 1865, consisted of 3,089 men, stationed as follows: Albuquerque, 155; Fort Bascom, 325; Fort Craig, 164; Fort Cummings, 51; Fort Marcy, 16; Fort McRae, 49; Fort Stanton, 160; Fort Sumner, 314; Fort Union, 807; Fort Wingate, 135; Franklin (El Paso), 217; Las Cruces, 171; Los Pinos, 46; and in the field and en route to the department, 443. In 1878 New Mexico was no longer a department but a military district under the department of the Missouri. The District of New Mexico was commanded by Col. Edward Hatch, who had under him 751 men, stationed at the following places: Santa Fe and Fort Marcy, 75; Fort Bayard, 241; Fort Stanton, 175; Fort Wingate, 137; and Fort Union, 123.

Many changes were made in the forts during this period. When the Navaho Indians were moved from the Bosque Redondo Reservation in 1868, Fort Sumner was abandoned. Fort Bayard, eight miles south of Pinos Altos, was established about 1869. Fort Bascom, on the Canadian River, was discontinued in 1871. Fort Cummings, also in southwestern New Mexico, built in 1863, was abandoned in 1873. Fort Tularosa was in existence about three years, 1872-1875. It was established to protect the Tularosa Indian Reservation, but when the reservation was abandoned the military post was also given up. The three posts, Fort Craig, Fort McRae and Fort Selden, between San Marcial and Rincon, were not garrisoned after 1877. Thus by 1878 the number of military posts of importance was four, and these far apart: Fort Union, in the northeastern part of the Territory; Fort Wingate, in the northwestern part; Fort Stanton, in the southeastern part; and Fort Bayard, in the southwestern part.

Public education did not make any important advance in the period before the railroads. The two grants of land made for colleges by the United States were accepted by the Territorial Legislature, but the institutions were not established until 1889. The act of Congress July 22, 1854, extended to New Mexico the provision of a law passed in 1802 which provided for the granting of seventy-two sections, 46,080 acres, to territories for aid in establishing universities. The donation of lands to assist states and territories in the creation of agricultural colleges was made by Congress, July 2, 1862, and under this law New Mexico received 30,000 acres.

The first Territorial board of education was created, as well as the office of superintendent of schools, by the Territorial Legislature on January 28, 1863. The board of education was to consist of the governor, secretary, judges of the Supreme Court and the bishop. These men were to have control of all funds and to cause to be established schools in the counties where funds were available. The superintendent was required to visit all of the schools at least once a year. This law was ineffective because no funds existed either for the work of the board or the superintendent.

Further organization was provided by the Legislature, January 31, 1867, but no money. The probate judges were made county superintendents of school, each precinct was made a school district, and the justices of the peace were placed in control of the district schools. The law provided that all children between the ages of seven and eighteen must attend the public schools, but exempted those who attended other schools or were too poor to pay for books and the charges, which included 50 cents per month per pupil. The probate judges were to appoint committees of two members who were to obtain subscriptions from the wealthy people of the communities for the support of the schools in their districts. The same Legislature petitioned the United States Congress asking for an appropriation to aid the schools in the place of the land grant of 4,309,368 acres made September 9, 1850. Congress, however, took no action. In 1868 the New Mexico Legislature asked Congress for a land appropriation in other public land territories, but Congress paid no attention to the request.

In the revenue law passed by the New Mexico Legislature, January 31, 1872, two clauses relating to school funds were included which marked the first provision for support of schools from taxation. The seventh section provided for the levying of a poll tax of $1 upon each male above the age of twenty-one. Section ten required that all county balances in excess of $500 must be paid into the school funds of the various counties.

Additional provision for control of schools was provided in the act of the New Mexico Legislature on February 1, 1872. The act created a county board of supervisors of public schools, consisting of four elected members. The president of the board was the probate judge, who was an ex-officio member. The duties of the Territorial superintendent of schools were further defined by the act of the Legislature, January 9, 1874, but the act was ineffective because, as no appropriation was made for the office, it was never filled.

Fines were imposed for a number of offenses by laws passed in January, 1876. The fines were to be paid into the school funds of the various counties. These offenses included selling liquor to minors, breaking the Sunday law, violation of the marriage laws, burial within the limits of any town and charg-

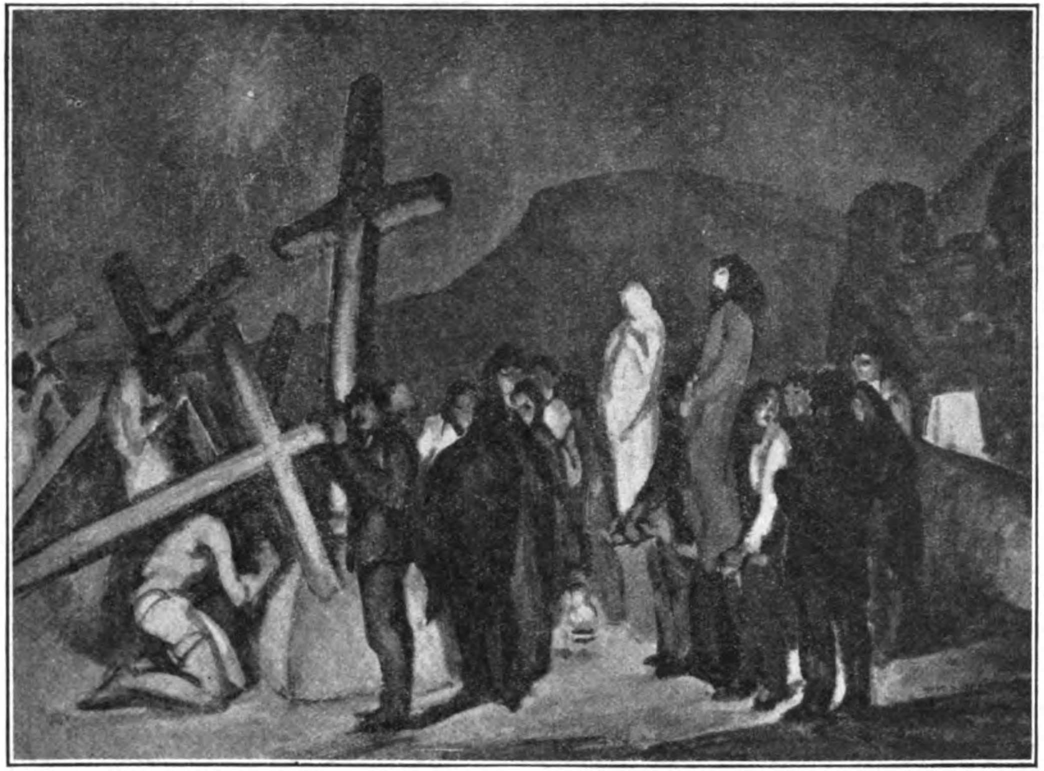


Photo by Museum Staff.

PENITENTE CEREMONY, GOOD FRIDAY. PAINTING BY W. P. HENDERSON ing for the use of water of springs or streams by travelers. However, fines, poll tax, public subscriptions and pay by the parents did not furnish sufficient funds to establish an adequate system of elementary public schools. The total amount raised by taxation for school purposes in 1880 was $34,748. Colorado during the same year raised for schools $715,000; Utah, $176,000; and Arizona, $103,000.

The Catholic revival which was begun by Bishop Lamy in the decade between 1851 and 1861 steadily increased in importance. Religious instruction, establishment of schools and aid to the poor and unfortunate engaged the efforts of a large number of workers. The settlements of Arizona were visited by Bishop Lamy in 1863. Two years later Rev. J. B. Salpointe and three other priests went from New Mexico to Arizona to revive the work of the church which had been begun by Fathers Kino, Keller, Sedelmayr and Garcés in the eighteenth century. According to Bishop Lamy's report in 1865 forty-three churchmen were working in the field, forty-five church buildings were in use, four convents and academies were in operation under the Sisters of Loretto, and the Christian Brothers had three establishments.

Two orders of the Catholic Church sent members to New Mexico at the request of Bishop Lamy, namely, the Jesuits and the Sisters of Charity. Members of both of these organizations accompanied Bishop Lamy on his return to New Mexico in 1867. Two years before members of the Sisters of Charity had come to Santa Fe by way of Denver. Sisters Vincent, Pauline, Theodosia and Catherine of this party began their journey westward, August 21, 1865. At the time of their arrival in Santa Fe they were assisted by Colonel Meline, who was at the time stationed at Fort Marcy. Further aid came from the Legislature February 1, 1866, in the form of an act appropriating $100 a month for co-operation with the Sisters of Charity in the operation of a recently established hospital. The policy of assisting religious schools and hospitals was continued for many years by the Legislature of New Mexico. The party which accompanied Bishop Lamy on his return to Santa Fe in the summer of 1867 consisted of the Jesuit Father Gasparri, Sister Alphonse of Loretto, who died on the plains, Sisters Augustine and Louise, Sisters of Charity, and fifteen other assistants.

The Sisters of Loretto extended their activity by establishing a convent at Albuquerque in 1866 and at Las Vegas in 1869. Some developments were not permanent as in the case of the Albuquerque convent, which was temporarily abandoned. At Las Cruces, which was in the diocese of Arizona, an academy was founded in 1870. The Bernalillo convent and academy was established in 1875 and in 1879 the Sisters of Loretto opened their academy at Socorro.

The activities of the Jesuits included the founding of a weekly newspaper called the *Revista Catolica*, January 2, 1875, and the founding of two schools in 1877, the one at Albuquerque, the other at Las Vegas. An act for the incorporation of the Jesuits in New Mexico was passed January 18, 1872, vetoed by Governor Axtell, passed over the veto, but annulled by Congress.

Many church buildings were erected during these years. In addition to repairing many of the Pueblo missions and erecting the numerous schools, the cathedral at Santa Fe was begun and the chapel of the Sisters of Loretto erected, the latter in 1873. The cornerstone of the cathedral was laid July 14, 1869. It was built on the site of the old parish church which in early times faced the plaza. The building was designed by the French architects, Antoine Mouly and son. The towers of the structure which have not been completed to their full height would add to the beauty of the edifice. The glass of the cathedral was made in the famous French town, Clermont-Farrand, where Archbishop Lamy began his life work in the church.

The increase of population in the central and southern parts of the Rocky Mountain area soon called for further organization for church control. Father Salpointe, in 1868, was made bishop of Tucson, and Father Machebeuf, bishop of Denver. The archbishopric of Santa Fe was created by decree of the Holy See, February 12, 1875, and Bishop Lamy was officially made archbishop by the ceremonies performed by Bishop Salpointe, June 16, 1875.

Prior to the end of the Civil War the Protestant churches had not succeeded in building up any organizations in New Mexico. Between 1865 and 1878 the Methodist, the Presbyterian and the Episcopalian Church inaugurated activities that have been continuous. The Methodist missionary, Rev. Thomas Harwood, was the founder of the Methodist missions in New Mexico. He and his wife, who had a large part in the work, came to New Mexico in the fall of 1869, located at Tiptonville, near Watrous, and began their teaching and preaching. During the early years New Mexico formed a district of the Colorado Conference. The winter of 1869 witnessed the opening of a school by Mrs. Harwood in Cherry Valley near Tiptonville and the first missionary journey of Reverend Harwood upon which he preached at Elizabethtown, Cimarron and other places in the Canadian Valley. This journey established the circuit over which the missionary traveled 2,000 miles during the six months from October, 1869, to March, 1870. The presiding elder of the district, J. L. Dyer, who was stationed at Santa Fe and who had begun work at Elizabethtown in 1868, arrived at Tiptonville, January 22, 1870, to attend the quarterly meeting of the missionary district. During the spring churches were organized at Tiptonville and Elizabethtown. Subscriptions for churches amounted to $1,865 for Tiptonville and $800 for Elizabethtown to which in each case was added $250 supplied by the Methodist Board of Church Extension. The church at Elizabethtown was dedicated by Thomas

Harwood July 3, 1870. An event which caused much talk and some threats was the marriage of Virginia Maxwell, daughter of L. B. Maxwell, the owner of the Maxwell Grant, to Capt. A. B. Keys by Reverend Harwood, March 30, 1870, against the wishes of her father. The missionary was warned to stay out of the Cimarron Valley, but he continued his preaching at Elizabethtown without molestation. In November, 1870, the church and the school at Tiptonville were dedicated, the school having about sixty pupils in attendance at the time.

The Elizabethtown Church received the first additional worker for the Methodist mission in New Mexico. The Colorado Conference appointed Rev. N. S. Buckner in the summer of 1871. He was succeeded by F. J. Tolby in 1873, who was killed while journeying between Elizabethtown and Cimarron September 14, 1875. His successor, Rev. O. P. McMains, took a leading part in bringing to justice the murderers and was himself indicted for murder on account of the killing of a man whom he suspected of the murder of Tolby. Tolby's death was probably due to evidence in a murder case which he and no one else could produce.

The Methodist mission work was extended to the Rio Grande Valley in the fall of 1871. In 1855 a class had been organized at Peralta under Ambrósio Gonzales by Doctor Lore. This class had been continued and when Thomas Harwood visited the settlement, October 17, 1871, he found that there were forty-two members. Rev. John Steele became the minister at Peralta in the fall of 1872.

The general conference of the Methodist Church at its annual meeting in 1872 separated New Mexico from the Colorado Conference and placed it under the Methodist Missionary Society with the title *The New Mexico Mission.* Thomas Harwood was appointed as superintendent. Rev. M. Matthieson was sent to the mission in the latter part of 1873 and was assigned to Socorro, where a class had recently been organized by the superintendent on his return from a visit to Silver City. At this time there were three Spanish-American preachers: Benito Garcia, Ambrosio Gonzales, and Juan Garcia. At the beginning of 1874 there were 112 members, 100 of whom were Spanish-Americans. Schools, Sunday schools and church services were being held in two districts of the Canadian Valley—Cimarron and Tiptonville; and in two sections of the Rio Grande Valley—Peralta and Socorro. The church at Cireulita, twenty miles from Tiptonville, which was the third Methodist Church established in New Mexico, was dedicated September 5, 1874.

The first annual meeting of the New Mexico Methodist Mission was held at Peralta, November 20, 1876. In addition to the posts formerly occupied appointments were made for Las Cruces, Valverde and Silver City. During the year the churches at Socorro and Peralta were dedicated. The conference was held at Peralta in 1877 and was the first attended by the bishop having jurisdiction over New Mexico. At the end of the year the missions had ten preachers, 197 members and church and school buildings valued at $52,000. The annual conference was held at Santa Fe October 7, 1878. During the ten years from 1868 to 1878 the Methodist missions had slowly extended from the Canadian Valley to the Rio Grande and to Silver City. It was the period in which Methodism was established in New Mexico.

The Presbyterian boards of home and foreign missions carried on work in New Mexico between 1866 and 1878. Rev. D. F. McFarland was sent by the Board of Home Missions to New Mexico on November 22, 1866. He purchased the church built by the Baptists in Santa Fe and opened a school in connection with his religious services. In 1870 the Presbyterians received a charter for a school to be known as Santa Fe University, Industrial and Agricultural College, but the institution was never organized. The Santa Fe Academy carried on the school work of the Presbyterian Board of Home Missions in Santa Fe. The Presbyterian Board built a church and a school at Las Vegas in 1870 and placed them under the control of Rev. J. A. Annin. The sum of $16,000 was spent in building up the work in Las Vegas during the four following years. A mission and a school were founded at Taos by J. M. Roberts in 1872. The Board of Foreign Missions sent Rev. John Menaul as missionary to the Navaho Indians in 1870 where he continued until 1875. In the following year Menaul founded a mission at Laguna. A mission school was established at Zuñi in 1876, and a journal was started in that year called the *Revista Evangelica,* which was discontinued in 1879. In this manner the Presbyterians prior to 1878 had organized churches and schools at Santa Fe, Las Vegas, Taos, Laguna and Zuñi.

The Episcopalian Church placed New Mexico under Bishop Randall of Colorado, February, 1867. The bishop visited Santa Fe in July, 1868, and in 1870 sent Rev. John Cornell to Albuquerque. The next year Reverend Cornell was transferred to Santa Fe, where he was elected rector on August 23, 1871. The general convention of the Episcopal Church created the missionary jurisdiction of Arizona and New Mexico in 1874 and Rev. W. F. Adams was elected bishop. Accompanied by Rev. Henry Forrester, the bishop arrived at Santa Fe, February 6, 1875. Bishop Adams began a tour of his district, proceeding down the Rio Grande Valley, but before reaching Arizona he was called to New Orleans and the work was left in the hands of Reverend Forrester. In the spring of 1877 a chapel at Mesilla was completed and placed in control of G. D. Bowman, a lay-reader. In 1878 the missionary jurisdiction of Arizona and New Mexico was placed under the bishop of Colorado.

Newspapers were few in number in New Mexico during the period before the railroads. According to the census of 1850 there were printed two papers: the one a weekly, the other a semi-monthly publication. The paper called *El Heraldo* was founded at Taos by Sancho Valdez in 1846. The *Santa Fe Republican,* owned by Hovey and Davis, appeared as a weekly, September 4, 1847, and the *Santa Fe New Mexican* was first printed December 1, 1847. Both of these papers as well as the *Santa Fe Gazette,* which was published in the '50s, were discontinued before 1863. On January 1 of that year a new weekly was started bearing the name *Santa Fe New Mexican,* which has been published since that time. Immediately following the completion of the telegraph lines to Santa Fe from Denver and Kansas City, the *Santa Fe New Mexican* in July, 1868, began issuing a daily as well as the weekly. In 1875 José Segura founded a weekly Spanish paper called *Boletin Popular* in Santa Fe, but it was discontinued before 1880.

Weekly papers were established in Albuquerque, Las Vegas, Silver City, Cimarron, Las Cruces and Mesilla. The *Albuquerque Review,* which was first printed in 1860 by Theodore S. Greiner, changed hands a number of times before 1878. Maj. H. R. Whiting published it in 1869 both in English and Spanish. The *Albuquerque Miner* began publication in 1870, but went out of existence before 1880. The *Las Vegas Gazette* was first printed in 1872. The *Cimarron News and Press,* which was founded by the Maxwell Land Grant Company in 1869, was the only paper in Northwestern New Mexico. The first paper in the southern part of the Territory was the *Borderer,* founded in 1871 and edited by N. V. Bennett at Las Cruces. In 1878 a paper called the *Las Cruces Thirty-Four* appears to have taken the place of the *Borderer.* A small sheet six by nine inches in size called the *Silver City Tribune* was published in 1873. Two years later the *Grant County Herald* began publication at Silver city. The *Mesilla News* was founded in 1873. Two religious publications were started at Las Vegas in 1875: the one a Catholis publication called the *Revista Catolica;* and the other a Presbyterian paper which was published under the name of the *Revista Evangelica.*

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE GOVERNMENT OF NEW MEXICO, 1878-1911.

The Territorial governors in this period were:

Lew Wallace	Oct. 1,	1878-	1881
Lionel A. Sheldon	June 4,	1881-	1885
Edmund G. Ross		1885-	1889
L. Bradford Prince		1889-	1893
William T. Thornton	April,	1893-	1897
Miguel A. Otero	June 7,	1897-	Jan. 23, 1906
Herbert J. Hagerman	Jan. 23,	1906-	1907
George Curry	Aug. 8,	1907-	March 1, 1910
William J. Mills	March 1,	1910-	Jan. 15, 1912

Lew Wallace was appointed governor by President Hayes following the removal of Governor Axtell. As author of *Ben Hur*, a part of which was written in Santa Fe, Governor Wallace is probably better known than any other governor of New Mexico. Governor Sheldon was appointed by President Garfield, a close personal and political friend since the days of the Civil War. Edmund G. Ross, a resident of Albuquerque, was appointed governor by President Cleveland. For the first time since the Civil war New Mexico had a democratic governor. L. Bradford Prince, who had been in New Mexico for a number of years, became governor by the appointment of President Harrison. President Cleveland's second appointment was William T. Thornton, who had been mayor of Santa Fe. Miguel A. Otero was appointed by President McKinley and kept in office by President Roosevelt until 1906. Otero's term was the longest Territorial governorship. The appointment and removal of H. J. Hagerman by President Roosevelt caused the shortest Territorial governorship. James W. Raynolds was acting governor until Roosevelt appointed George Curry, a New Mexico democrat of former days, who had become a republican and who had been a friend of Roosevelt dating from the Spanish-American war. The last Territorial governor, William J. Mills, was appointed by President Taft. He had been chief justice of the Territorial supreme court for twelve years, having been appointed by President McKinley, January 31, 1898.

New Mexico was represented in Congress by a delegate. Several attempts were made, without success, to have the Territory admitted into the Union. Finally it was brought about in 1911. Mariano S. Otero was delegate from 1879 until 1881 and was succeeded by Tranquilino Luna, who was followed by F. A. Manzanares in 1883. The election certificate of 1883 was given to Tranquilino Luna, but the committee on elections in the House of Representatives decided that the election returns for Valencia County were fraudulent. According to the evidence Valencia County returned a vote for Luna, republican, of 4,259, while the largest previous vote was 2,136. The House committee declared 2,357 of the votes in Valencia County fraudulent, which gave Manzanares, democrat, a majority of 938 votes. Upon the recommendation of the committee the House of Representatives seated the contestant. Antonio Joseph was delegate from 1885 until 1895, holding the office for five terms, a longer period than any other man. In 1895 Thomas B. Catron was elected. He was followed by H. B. Fergusson in 1897, who in turn was succeeded by Pedro Perea. Bernard S. Rodey was delegate for two terms, from 1901 until 1905. William H. Andrews succeeded Rodey, holding the position for three terms and until the end of the Territorial period. The election of Andrews in 1906 was contested by O. A. Larrazolo, but the House of Representatives refused to seat the contestant.

The votes cast in elections for delegates to Congress from New Mexico between 1878 and 1908 were as follows:

Date	*Elected*	*Vote*	*Defeated*	*Vote*	*Total Vote*
1878	Mariano S. Otero, Rep.	9,738	R. Baca, Dem.	9,067	18,805
1880	Tranquilino Luna, Rep.	10,835	M. A. Otero, Dem.	9,562	20,397
1882	F. A. Manzanares, Dem.	-----	Tranquilino Luna, Rep.	-----	-----
1884	Antonio Joseph, Dem.	12,271	L. B. Prince, Rep.	9,930	27,393
			W. L. Rynerson, Ind.	5,192	
1886	Antonio Joseph, Dem.	16,235	——— Dwyer, Rep.	12,347	28,852
1888	Antonio Joseph, Dem.	16,131	M. S. Otero, Rep.	14,481	30,612
1890	Antonio Joseph, Dem.	17,206	M. S. Otero, Rep.	15,142	32,348
1892	Antonio Joseph, Dem.	15,799	T. B. Catron, Rep.	15,220	31,019
1894	T. B. Catron, Rep.	18,113	A. Joseph, Dem.	15,351	35,299
			——— Mills, Pop.	1,835	
1896	H. B. Fergusson, Dem.	18,947	T. B. Catron, Rep.	17,017	36,030
			C. H. Dane, Ind.	66	
1898	Pedro Perea, Rep.	18,732	H. B. Fergusson, Dem.	16,659	35,381
1900	B. S. Rodey, Rep.	21,557	O. A. Larrazolo, Rep.	17,857	39,414
1902	B. S. Rodey, Rep.	24,272	H. B. Fergusson, Dem.	14,576	38,798
1904	W. H. Andrews, Rep.	22,305	——— Money, Dem.	17,125	43,011
			B. S. Rodey, Ind.	3,419	
1906	W. H. Andrews, Rep.	22,915	O. A. Larrazolo, Dem.	22,649	45,775
			W. P. Metcalf, Soc.	211	
1908	W. H. Andrews, Rep.	27,605	O. A. Larrazolo, Dem.	27,217	55,580
			W. P. Metcalf, Soc.	1,056	

This table shows that the total vote cast in New Mexico doubled between 1884 and 1908. The democrats were successful in six out of nine elections between 1878 and 1892, while the republicans won in seven out of eight elections between 1894 and 1908.

The first bill in Congress in this period looking toward the admission of New Mexico as a state into the Union was the bill proposed by the committee on Territories, March 13, 1886, which was entitled, "A bill to enable the people of Dakota, Montana, Washington and New Mexico to form constitutions and state governments and to be admitted into the Union on equal footing with the original states." The bill contained a provision for voting on a change of name of New Mexico to that of Montezuma at the same time as voting on the state constitution. The majority report of the committee on Territories favored the bill, but the minority report of the committee made a violent attack upon New Mexico. As a result the bill was amended, omitting New Mexico, and passed. A separate bill looking toward the admission of New Mexico was introduced by the delegate, Antonio Joseph, February 15, 1889, but it was lost without coming before the Congress, due to the closing of the session.

This bill was again introduced into the House December 18, 1889, and a similar bill was introduced into the Senate by Senator Wolcott of Colorado, February 4, 1890. The committee on Territories, January 6, 1890, brought in a bill providing for the admission of New Mexico, Arizona, Idaho and Wyoming. In the course of this bill it was amended excluding from it Arizona and New Mexico and in the modified form was passed and became a law. Antonio Joseph, in urging the passage of the bill introduced by him December 18, 1889, stated that he was opposed to the New Mexico state constitution as drawn by the constitutional convention of 1889. This division in New Mexico helped defeat the statehood bill.

The New Mexico Legislature for the last time took the initiative in the matter of statehood, February 28, 1889, when it passed a bill entitled, "An act to provide for a constitutional convention and the formation of a state constitution and for other purposes." The act provided for the election of seventy-three delegates to the convention in August from the different counties. According to the democrats, the republican counties were over-represented in the apportionment. An attempt was made by party committees to arrive at an agreement but the plan failed and almost all of the democrats refused to take part in the convention. The first meetings were held September 3, 1889, a constitution was adopted and the convention adjourned after ordering the constitution printed. The convention re-assembled August 18, 1890, made a few amendments which had been suggested during the year, and set the date, October 7, 1890, for the election to accept or reject the document. The democrats held a convention at Silver City and advised members of the party to vote against the document. The republicans issued a circular in which those opposing the adoption of the constitution were condemned in no uncertain language. The opposition to the constitution was very strong, 7,493 votes being cast in favor of the instrument, and 16,180 against it. However, a large part of the opposition was to the particular document rather than to statehood.

A committee of fifty-four men was appointed by Governor Prince at the request of the Territorial Bureau of Immigration, in the spring of 1890, to go to Washington for the purpose of gaining assistance from Congress. Twenty-nine members appeared before the Senate committee on Territories, May 5, 1890. Governor Prince, speaking for the New Mexico committee, stated it to be the unanimous belief of the members that the prosperity of New Mexico could not be obtained without statehood.

The effort to have passed by Congress an Enabling Act was resumed in 1892. Antonio Joseph, through the courtesy of the committee on Territories, made the report March 16, 1892. The bill passed the House and in the Senate it was amended, which defeated the bill. In the following Congress the New Mexico statehood bill passed the House, June 28, 1894. Again it was amended in the Senate. The measure passed the House with the Senate amendments, but failed to come up for final consideration in the Senate. The Utah bill was passed at this time, and although there was less opposition to the New Mexico bill it failed to pass due to the absence of the delegate when the measure was called up in the House.

Statehood conventions were held in 1901 and in 1907, not for the purpose of drawing up constitutions, as had been the case in 1889 and earlier, but to urge Congress to pass an act providing for the admission of New Mexico. Governor Otero called the convention which met at Albuquerque, October 15, 1901. The resolutions emphasized the injustice of continuing New Mexico as a Territory. Governor Curry issued the call for a convention which met in Santa Fe, November 30, 1907. The resolutions adopted requested that the New Mexico statehood bill be passed immediately. Between 1891 and 1908 the New Mexico Legislature passed ten memorials and eight joint resolutions relative to statehood.

During the period between 1890 and 1910 many newspaper and magazine articles were written by men favoring statehood, among whom were Bernard S. Rodey, L. Bradford Prince and R. E. Twitchell. These articles were principally for the purpose of refuting statements concerning the incapacity of the people of New Mexico for self-government. In other ways sentiment was built up favorable to New Mexico statehood. Annually, following 1892, the Trans-Mississippi Commercial Congress passed resolutions favoring statehood for New Mexico. In 1892 the National Irrigation Congress passed a resolution in favor of immediate admission of New Mexico into the Union. Other western organizations did likewise.

Thomas B. Catron, the New Mexico delegate, introduced a bill for the admission of New Mexico on December 9, 1895, with the usual result, namely, no adverse vote, but failure to get the bill through before the end of Congress. In the Fifty-fifth Congress and in the Fifty-seventh Congress the same fate attended the bills for statehood introduced by the delegates, H. B. Fergusson and Pedro Perea. Friends of statehood in New Mexico during the last five years of the nineteenth century witnessed the rise of a strong feeling that the sparsely settled West was too well represented in Congress.

A sub-committee of the Senate committee on Territories was appointed for the investigation of conditions in New Mexico, Arizona, Oklahoma and Indian Territories bearing on the admission of these Territories into the Union. Senator Beveridge, the chairman, and the other members of the committee held closed hearings in Las Vegas, Santa Fe, Albuquerque, Las Cruces and Carlsbad between November 12 and 21, 1902. Those called before the committee were principally court interpreters, census enumerators, judges, teachers, justices of the peace and other public officials. The report of the committee emphasized the use of Spanish in schools and official life, opposed statehood, yet stated that under the existing Territorial government the people of New Mexico practically enjoyed self-government. The report also held that many of the people of New Mexico did not desire statehood.

This sub-committee of the Senate had been ordered to present a report on the bill that had been introduced into the House, April 1, 1902, for the admission of New Mexico, Arizona and Oklahoma. The Beveridge report formed the majority opinion of the Senate committee on Territories. However, a minority report was made by four members of the committee favoring the passage of the measure. Senator Elkins and Senator Quay favored the bill, but the opposition was strong enough to prevent it from coming up for a vote. The New Mexico delegate, Bernard S. Rodey, introduced a bill in the following Congress, but it also failed to pass.

The plan for joint statehood for Arizona and New Mexico was suggested in 1905 and supported by the opponents to the increase of the number of western states. On February 6, 1905, Senator Beveridge made a speech favoring the measure. The scheme of making one state out of Indian and Oklahoma Territories, which was carried to successful conclusion, may have first given the idea of combining New Mexico and Arizona. Arizona objected very strongly, making the claim that union with the Territory of New Mexico would make property insecure and progress impossible in Arizona. New Mexico leaders favored the bill although they did not expect it to be accepted by Arizona. The joint statehood bill was passed by Congress, June 16, 1906, and the question of acceptance was voted on by the people of Arizona and New Mexico in November of that year. The Arizona vote was 16,265 against and 3,141 for the measure, and in New Mexico 14,735 against and 26,195 in favor of joint statehood. The plan of joint statehood thus failed. At the time of the election above recorded delegates to a New Mexico state constitutional convention were elected. A plan was adopted by the New Mexico leaders which provided for drawing up a constitution and the presenting of the same to Congress with the request that New Mexico be admitted into the Union. The republican Territorial convention recommended such action in case joint statehood was defeated and suggested that the sixty-six delegates meet in Santa Fe, January 7, 1907. Some of the delegates assembled at the date specified, but adjourned without action until February 5, 1907. Resolutions were adopted at a meeting on February 5, asking the New Mexico Legislature to pass a law for the meeting of the constitutional convention, but that body failed to act and the matter was dropped.

Statehood bills were introduced in Congress for the admission of New Mexico in December, 1906, 1907 and 1908, but in each case they failed to come up for a final vote. The statements in the democratic and republican party platforms concerning statehood for Territories had been, with few exceptions, very general prior to 1808. The democrats after their defeat in 1896 promised more than the republicans. The democratic platform in 1908 favored the immediate admission of Arizona and New Mexico as separate states. The republican platform contained a similar provision due to the efforts of the chairman of the New Mexico Republican Committee, Holm O. Bursum.

It is a question whether the pledge of the republican party would have been sufficient to overcome the feeling of eastern representatives against the admitting of new western states, had it not been for the work of the New Mexico delegate in Congress, W. H. Andrews, a former Pennsylvania political leader. A statehood bill was introduced February 3, 1909, which became the basis for final action although it did not come up in Congress. This measure provided for the admission of New Mexico and Arizona as separate states and was introduced into the House January 17, 1910. A short time later, January 31, at the request of Senator Beveridge, a statehood bill was introduced in the Senate. The committee on Territories of the Senate made a report on the statehood bill March 14, in which the Senate bill with some amendments was favored. It was not until June 15 that the measure came up in the Senate. After debating the House and Senate bills, the latter was passed by a unanimous vote. When the measure was returned to the

House the influence of President Taft, W. H. Andrews and others was used to have the House accept the Senate bill without prolonging the matter by submitting the measure to a joint conference committee. The motion to accept the Senate amendments was made by the chairman of the House committee on Territories, June 18, and without debating the bill it was passed without a dissenting vote. Two days later President Taft signed the measure providing for the admission of New Mexico into the Union. More than fifty bills had been presented to Congress on the subject of New Mexico statehood. Failures to pass the bills had in many cases been due to accidents. Few pieces of legislation in the history of the United States have met with so many defeats and few have been the cause of so many reports, hearings and investigations.

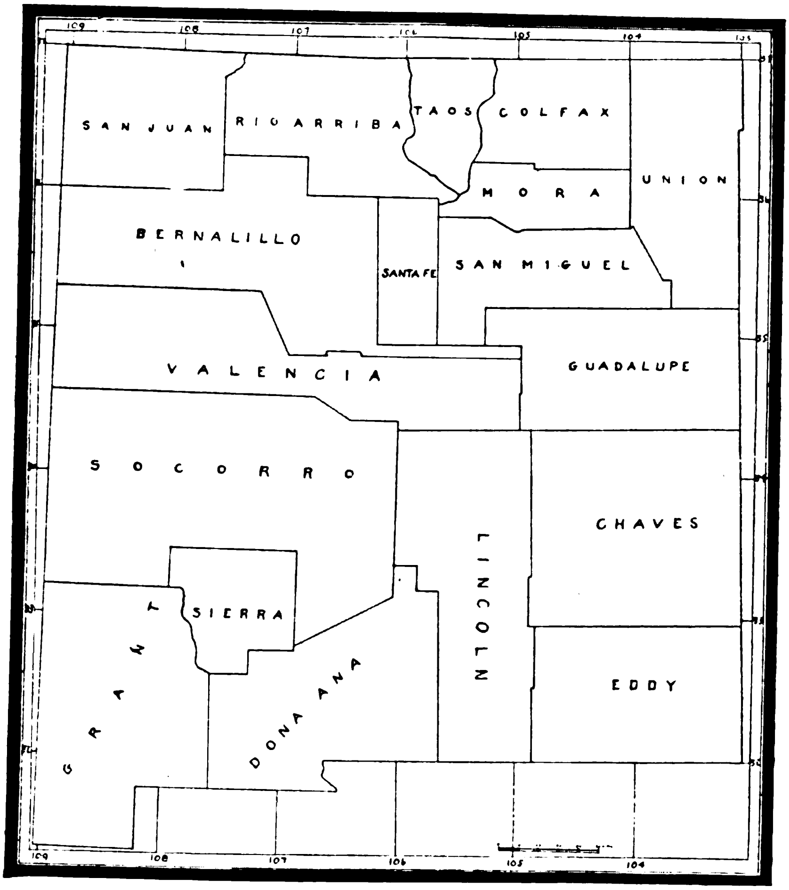
The "Enabling Act," which had been before Congress in many forms, was finally passed June 20, 1910. It provided for the admission of New Mexico and Arizona into the Union as separate states. The New Mexico "Enabling Act" provided for the calling of a constitutional convention of 100 members, who should draw up a state constitution; and for the inclusion in the constitution of certain provisions irrevocable without the consent of the United States (Article XXI of the New Mexico constitution contains these matters which relate to religious liberty, free public schools, validity of the Territorial debt, non-taxing of United States lands and Indians, the fixing of the capital and non-abridgement of rights on account of race, color or previous condition of servitude). The act also made provision for ratification of the constitution by the people; the submitting of the constitution to the President and Congress of the United States; the election of state, county and national officers under the constitution; the granting of lands to the state and the selection of the state lands; for the establishing of United States courts in the new state; and for the continuation in force of all Territorial laws until changed by the State Legislature.

The proclamation of Governor Mills announcing the number of members to be elected from each county for the constitutional convention was issued June 29, 1910. The apportionment was based on the vote cast for the election of delegate to Congress in 1908. The republicans had a majority in the convention of thirty-four, there being sixty-seven republican and thirty-three democratic members. This election of delegates to the constitutional convention took place September 6, 1910. It was immediately followed by the meeting of the convention in Santa Fe on October 3, 1910.

The state constitution, which was completed November 21, 1910, was admittedly a conservative document drawn by the overwhelming republican majority of the convention. The constitution contained numerous provisions that, in the opinion of many, have no place in the fundamental law of a state, but belong to the field of statutory law. It may be that the length of the document was due to the desire of the majority to place many questions beyond the power of the Legislature to change. Article I states the name and fixes the boundaries of the state; Article II is a bill of rights, by custom included in state constitutions; and Articles III, IV, V and VI provide for the legislative, executive and judicial branches of the state government which may be considered the essential part of the constitution. Article VII relates to the right to vote; Articles VIII and IX to taxation and indebtedness; Articles X and XI to corporations; Articles XII, XIII and XIV have to do with education, public lands and public institutions, respectively; and Articles XV to XVIII, inclusive, deal with agriculture, irrigation, mining and the militia. Article XIX provides the method for the amending the constitution; and Article XXI contains the compact with the United States, except the provision that all officers of the state must be able to transact their work without an interpreter, which was omitted. Articles XX and XXII contain general provisions. The democrats raised many objections to the constitution, among which were: Unjust apportionment; expensive government machinery; absence of direct primary; and other recent machinery for expressing the will of the people; absence of effective election law and corrupt practices act; and the inclusion of a provision concerning the selection of lands which was contrary to the "Enabling Act." The democratic convention which made these and other objections to the new constitution issued a statement, December 17, 1910, advising voters to defeat the constitution at the election which was to take place January 21, 1911. The votes cast amounted to 45,141 and of these 31,742 were for the constitution and 13,339 against it.

The constitution was thus adopted by the people. The next step required the submitting of the document to the President and to Congress. On February 16, 1911, a joint resolution was passed by Congress relating to the boundary between New Mexico and Texas. The President submitted the constitution of New Mexico to Congress with his approval, February 24. The House of Representatives approved the New Mexico constitution, March 1, 1911, but it failed in the Senate. In the New Mexico constitution the objection was found in Article XIX, which made the constitution difficult to amend and in the Arizona constitution objection was raised to the provision for recall of judges. It was finally decided that these questions should be submitted to the voters of the respective states and that the state constitutions should be accepted regardless of the final action of the voters on these questions. A bill to this effect passed August 6, but was vetoed by President Taft. On August 18 a resolution was passed by the Senate which required Arizona to eliminate the recall of judges from its constitution. The bill thus changed passed the House August 19 and was signed by the President August 21.

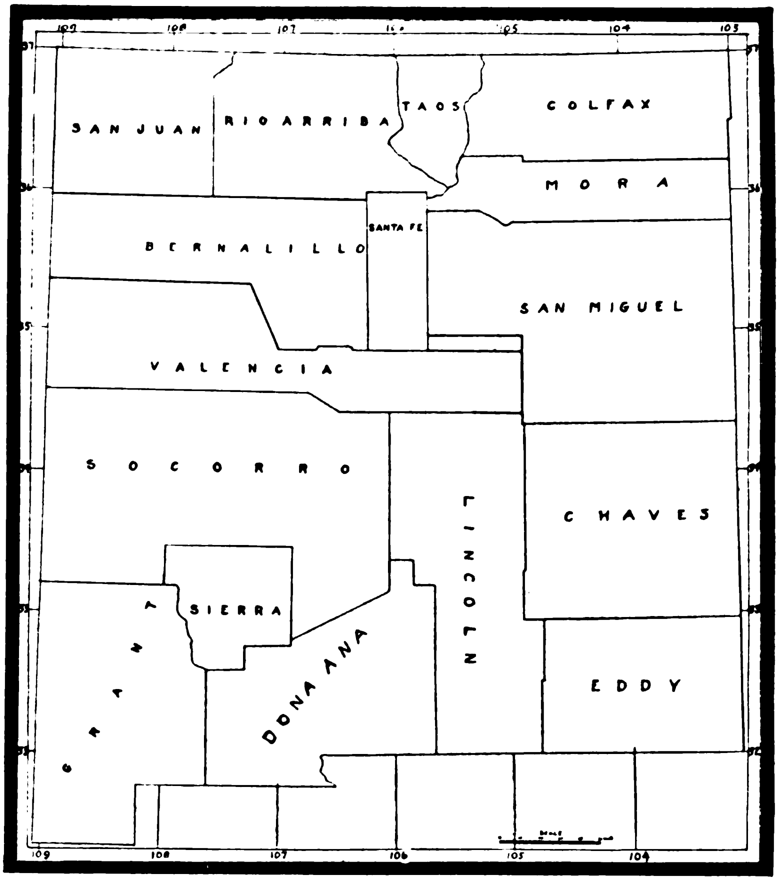
The opening up of New Mexico which followed the building of the railroads created a demand for new counties. Between 1880 and 1890 the number increased from twelve to sixteen. Sierra County was created April 3, 1884, from parts of Socorro, Dona Ana and Grant Counties. The mining activities in the vicinity of Kingston and Hillsboro explain the demand for an additional county in that section. The movement of population into the northwestern part of the Territory in the '80s brought about the demand for a new county in the San Juan Valley. The western part of Rio Arriba County was made San Juan County, February 24, 1887. Lincoln County, which during the '80s included almost one-fourth of the entire Territory of New Mexico, was cut down by the creation of Chaves and Eddy Counties, February 25, 1889. The establishment of these coun-


109
108
107
106
105
104
103
SAN JUAN
RIO ARRIBA
TAOS
COLFAX
UNION
MORA
BERNALILLO
SANTA FE
SAN MIGUEL
GUADALUPE
VALENCIA
SOCORRO
CHAVES
LINCOLN
SIERRA
GRANT
DONA ANA
EDDY

New Mexico Counties in 1890

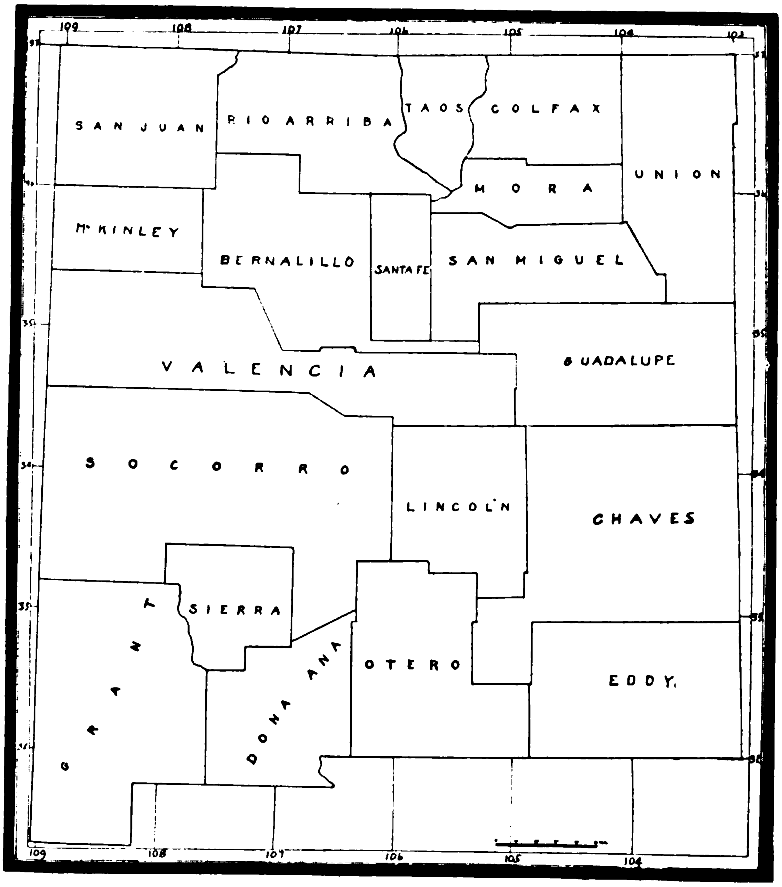
ties marked the beginning of the development of the Pecos Valley.

The principal changes in counties between 1890 and 1895 occurred in Eastern New Mexico. Guadalupe County was established February 28, 1891, from the southern part of San Miguel County, due to the increase of population in Eastern New Mexico. Union County, which was created February 23, 1893, from the eastern parts of Colfax, Mora and San Miguel counties, was the result of the development of the Northeastern part of the Territory. The northern boundary of Bernalillo County was changed, February 28, 1895, so as to include in the county the southwestern part of Rio Arriba County.


SAN JUAN
RIO ARRIBA
TAOS
COLFAX
MORA
SANTA FE
BERNALILLO
SAN MIGUEL
VALENCIA
SOCORRO
LINCOLN
CHAVES
SIERRA
GRANT
DONA ANA
EDDY
109
108
107
106
105
104
103

NEW MEXICO COUNTIES IN 1895

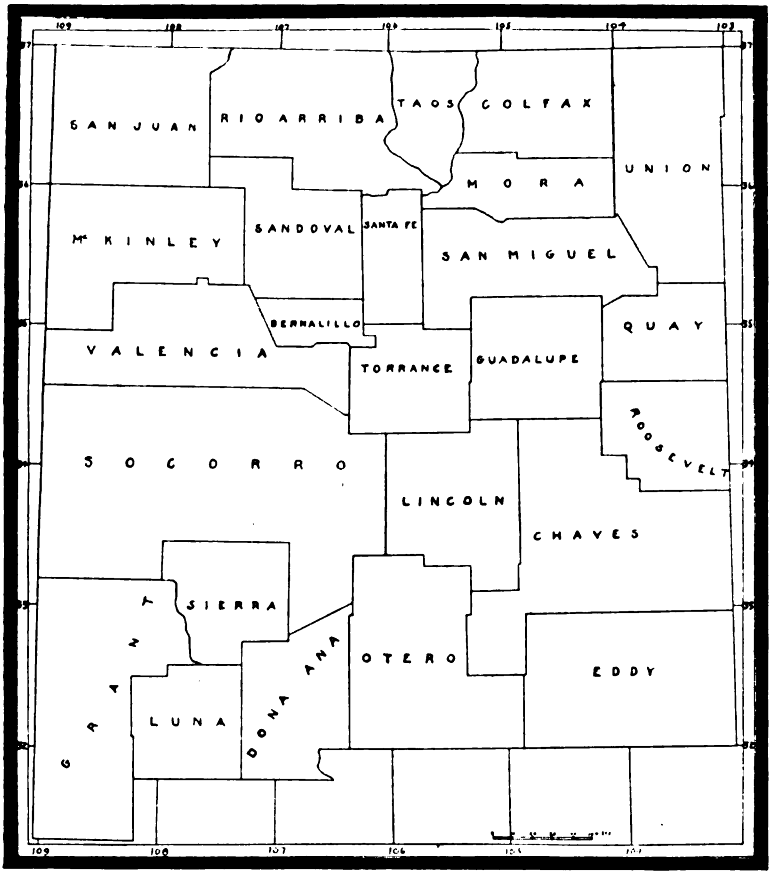
The number of counties increased from eighteen to twenty between 1895 and 1900. The development of the Gallup coal fields created a demand for a local government in the western part of Bernalillo County. McKinley County was organized under the law passed February 23, 1899. The building of the El Paso and Southwestern Railroad through Lincoln County increased the wealth and population of the southern part of Lincoln County. Otero County, created January 30, 1899, was made from the southern part of Lincoln and the eastern part of Dona Ana counties. At the same time Chaves County was enlarged.


109
108
107
106
105
104
103
SAN JUAN
RIO ARRIBA
TAOS
COLFAX
UNION
MORA
McKINLEY
BERNALILLO
SANTA FE
SAN MIGUEL
GUADALUPE
VALENCIA
SOCORRO
LINCOLN
CHAVES
SIERRA
GRANT
DONA ANA
OTERO
EDDY.

NEW MEXICO COUNTIES IN 1900

Six new counties were established between 1900 and 1910. McKinley County was enlarged March 18, 1901, by adding to it parts of Bernalillo and Valencia counties. The development of Deming and the Mimbres Valley resulted in the creation of Luna County, March 16, 1901, from the eastern part of Grant

County and the western part of Dona Ana County. Railroad building and settlement in Eastern New Mexico were the causes leading to the marking off of two new counties. Quay County was established, January 28, 1903, and Roosevelt County, February 28, 1903. Guadalupe and Chaves counties were decreased in size to form these new units of local government. Gold mining in the Jemez Plateau increased the importance of the northern part of Bernalillo County and resulted in the organizing of Sandoval County, March 10, 1903. A new county was made March 16, 1903, principally from the eastern part of Valencia County. This new subdivision, Torrance County, was the result of railroad building and settlement in the Estancia Valley east of the Manzano Mountains. Curry County, which was established February 25, 1909, consisted of a part of Quay and a part


109
108
107
106
105
104
103
SAN JUAN
RIO ARRIBA
TAOS
COLFAX
UNION
MORA
McKINLEY
SANDOVAL
SANTA FE
SAN MIGUEL
BERNALILLO
QUAY
VALENCIA
TORRANCE
GUADALUPE
ROOSEVELT
SOCORRO
LINCOLN
CHAVES
SIERRA
GRANT
DONA ANA
OTERO
LUNA
EDDY

NEW MEXICO COUNTIES IN 1903

of Roosevelt, which added another unit of local government in the eastern part of the Territory. Fourteen new counties were made between 1880 and 1910, which was two more than the number existing in 1880.

The counties included in the jurisdictions of the district courts were changed between 1880 and 1911 as the new counties were created and the number of district courts was increased. The first district in 1882 included Santa Fe, Rio Arriba, Taos, Colfax, Mora and San Miguel counties. No further change was made until the judicial districts were fixed by the state constitution, when San Juan was removed from the first district. The second district at the beginning of the period consisted of Bernalillo, Valencia and Socorro counties. In 1890 Socorro County was removed from the jurisdiction of the second district. When McKinley County was created in 1899 it was added to the second district for judicial purposes, and in 1908 the new counties of Sandoval and Torrance were also added to the second district. Torrance County was removed from the second district in 1904 and Valencia in 1909. Thus the counties composing the second judicial district in 1911 were Bernalillo, Sandoval and McKinley.

The third district in 1880 included Lincoln, Dona Ana and Grant counties. Sierra County was added in 1884 and Lincoln was removed from the district in 1890. The third district was composed of three counties, Dona Ana, Sierra and Grant, until the creation of Otero County in 1899, when that county was added to the district. In 1901 Luna County was added to the third district and Socorro was made a part in 1904, when Otero County was removed from the district. The third judicial district was completely changed in 1911. According to the arrangement of districts provided in the state constitution, the third judicial district consisted of Dona Ana, Otero, Lincoln and Torrance counties.

The fourth judicial district was first to be added to the district courts as established by Kearny in 1846 and by the act establishing the Territory in 1851. This district as originally created in 1889 consisted of Colfax, Mora and San Miguel counties. Guadalupe County was annexed in 1891 and Union in 1893. Quay County became a part of the fourth district when it was established in 1903 and removed from the district in 1904. The district in 1911 was changed to consist of Mora, San Miguel and Guadalupe counties.

The fifth district was established in 1890, including Chaves, Eddy, Lincoln and Socorro counties. In 1904 Socorro and Lincoln were removed and Roosevelt added to the district. When Curry County was created it was annexed to the fifth district.

The sixth judicial district, which was formed in 1904, comprised Otero, Lincoln, Torrance, Guadalupe and Quay counties. In 1911 it was changed and made to consist of Grant and Luna counties.

The seventh judicial district, created in 1909, was made up of Valencia, Socorro and Sierra counties. The eighth district as originally created in 1911 comprised Taos, Colfax, Union and Quay.

The Legislature of New Mexico in 1878 consisted of two houses; a Council of thirteen members and a House of Representatives of twenty-six members. The number of members was changed to twelve for the Council and twenty-four for the House of Representatives in 1882. In the state constitution the name of the Council was changed to that of Senate and the number of members increased to twenty-four. The House of Representatives was increased to forty-nine members.

The number of Council and House districts was changed several times during the period. There were nine Council districts until the Legislature of 1907, which was elected from twelve districts. The state constitution increased the number to twenty-four. Council districts eight and nine between 1893 and 1905 were composed of the same counties in part.

Election	*Counties in Eighth District*	*Counties in Ninth District*
1892	Grant, Dona Ana.	Grant, Dona Ana, Eddy, Chaves, Lincoln.
1900	Grant, Dona Ana, Otero.	Grant, Dona Ana, Otero, Eddy, Lincoln, Chaves.
1902	Grant, Luna, Dona Ana, Otero.	Grant, Luna, Dona Ana, Eddy, Otero, Chaves, Lincoln.
1904	Grant, Luna, Dona Ana, Otero.	Grant, Luna, Dona Ana, Otero, Lincoln, Chaves, Eddy, Roosevelt.

Some peculiar senatorial districts were created in 1911, among which may be mentioned: District number one, San Miguel County; number two, San Miguel and Mora; number three, San Miguel and Guadalupe; district number seven, Bernalillo; number five, Bernalillo, Sandoval and San Juan; district number fourteen, Socorro; number thirteen, Socorro, Sierra, Grant and Luna; number fifteen, Socorro, Torrance, Lincoln and Otero.

The number of the House districts was enlarged from ten to twelve between 1878 and 1888. Another change was made in 1892 when the number was increased to fifteen and again in 1906 to twenty-one. The state constitution fixed the number of House districts at thirty. The system of including a county in several districts was followed in the case of House districts. Guadalupe County was district thirteen. District number twenty-nine included Guadalupe and San Miguel and district number twenty-eight was made up of Guadalupe, Torrance and Santa Fe counties.

The division in the Council and House between republicans and democrats is information difficult to obtain for sessions of the Legislature prior to 1900. In 1882 the parties were represented in the House by twenty republicans and six democrats, and in the Council by eight republicans and five democrats. No figures on the division have been found for the sessions between that date and 1901, from which time it is possible to give the representation of the political parties.

	Council		*House*	
Year	*Republicans*	*Democrats*	*Republicans*	*Democrats*
1901	7	3	20	4
1903	12	0	22	2
1905	10	2	18	6
1907	11	1	21	3
1909	9	3	20	4

These figures show an overwhelming majority of republicans in both Houses of the Legislature during the last ten years of the Territorial government. During the same period in the elections of 1906 and 1908 for delegate to Congress the democratic candidate came within 400 votes of carrying the elections.

The Territorial executive officers were changed but slightly in the period 1861 to 1878. They consisted of governor, secretary of the Territory, auditor, treasurer, offices provided for in 1850 and 1851. The governor and secretary of the Territory were appointed by the President of the United States under the Act of Congress, September 9, 1850, creating the Territory. The attorney-general, auditor and treasurer offices were provided by the Territorial Legislature in 1851. The office of adjutant general of the militia was created on January 6, 1860.

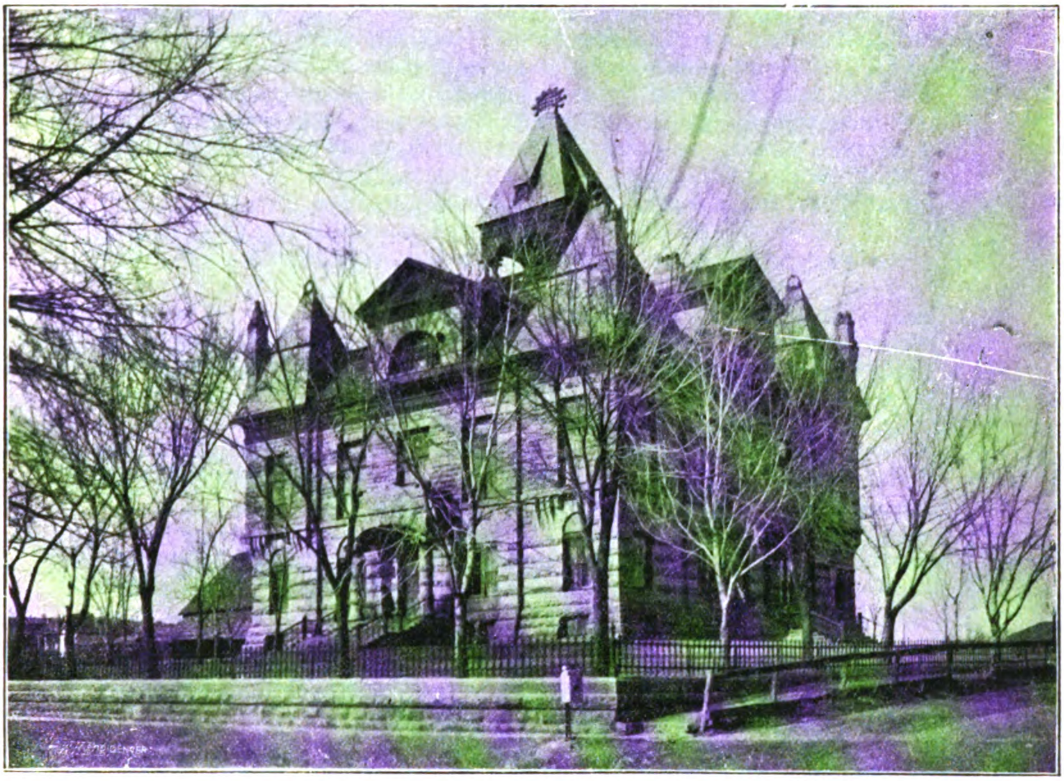
Between 1878 and 1911 many new offices were created and numerous boards, bureaus, commissions and institutions which were supported by Territorial funds. The first New Mexico law regulating insurance companies, passed February 18, 1882, provided that the Territorial auditor should license and examine insurance companies. The office of superintendent of insurance was established February 9, 1905, and the duties were further defined.

The office of coal oil inspector was established in 1895 for the purpose of regulating the sale of petroleum products. The Territorial Commerce Commission with similar powers was created March 15, 1899. The commission consisting of three members appointed by the governor seems never to have acted. The office of coal oil inspector was abolished in February, 1903, but was re-established in March, 1905.

The Board of Public Lands consisting of the governor, solicitor general and the commissioner of public lands, was created by the Territorial Legislature March 16, 1899, as well as the office of commissioner of public lands, which was to be filled by the governor. The duties of the commissioner and the board included the leasing, sale and control of Territorial lands.

The office of traveling auditor and bank examiner was created March 12, 1903. The officer was required to audit the accounts of county officials twice a year and examine the Territorial banks, building and loan associations and savings banks. The office of county auditor has never existed in New Mexico.

The office of game and fish warden was created in 1903. Hunting and fishing licenses were not required under the act, the protection and regulation of hunting and fishing being the object of the law.



SAN MIGUEL COUNTY COURT HOUSE, LAS VEGAS

The New Mexico Mounted Police was a company of Territorial police authorized by the Legislature February 20, 1905. The purpose of the force was to prevent the stealing of stock and to assist local officials.

The Territorial Board of Equalization was established March 1, 1882, consisting of the governor, auditor and attorney-general with power to equalize assessments. The membership of the board was changed by the law, February 23, 1893, providing that five members should be appointed by the governor, one from each of the five judicial districts. In addition to adjusting assessments, the new board was ordered to fix the valuation upon all property in the Territory belonging to railroad, telegraph, telephone and sleeping car companies.

The Bureau of Immigration was created February 13, 1880, for the purpose of advertising New Mexico. There was some opposition to spending money for this purpose, but appropriations continued until the end of the Territorial period. Since that time none has been made, and, although the law creating the bureau has not been repealed, it has not been active.

The Territorial Conservation Commission, established March 18, 1909, consisted of three members appointed by the governor. This commission was instructed to investigate matters relating to climate, plants and animals, minerals, soils, irrigation and underground water.

The Territorial Library Board was provided for in a law passed February 12, 1889. The board consisted of the judge of the district including Santa Fe and two residents of Santa Fe appointed by the judge. The librarian, as before the creation of the board, was appointed by the governor.

The Territorial Museum, which was established February 19, 1909, was placed in control of a board of regents consisting of the governor, the president of the New Mexico Archaeological Society, three members of the School of American Archaeology and one other member appointed by the governor. The director of the School of American Archaeology was made director of the museum but received no salary for the office.

The penitentiary was the first Territorial institution created controlled by public officers. As early as 1853 a Federal appropriation of $10,000 was made to assist the Territory in building a prison, but no action was taken and the sum was applied to pay part of the New Mexico portion of the direct tax assessment made by the United States during the Civil war. Prisoners of the Territory were by agreement sent to the Kansas penitentiary until 1884. The act providing for the penitentiary was passed by the Territorial Legislature March 14, 1884. It authorized the sale of $150,000 worth of bonds and a tax levy of one-half mill, to build and support the institution. The officers to control the penitentiary consisted of a board of seven members, which in 1899 was reduced to five, and a superintendent. The board and the superintendent were appointed for a two year term by the governor. Under the Act of Congress, June 21, 1898, the Territory was granted 50,000 acres of land to assist in supporting the penitentiary. Of this amount 8,309 acres were sold and 23,844 acres leased prior to 1911. The permanent fund derived from the sale of lands between 1901 and 1911 amounted to $25,616.32 and the income fund, which was money from leases and interest on the permanent fund, for the same period, totalled $5,515.49. One of the principal events connected with the office of superintendent of the penitentiary grew out of the removal of Holm O. Bursum by Governor Hagerman in 1906. A political fight followed between Governor Hagerman and the republican organization which ended in the removal of Governor Hagerman by President Roosevelt. During the last decade of the Territorial period the number of prisoners varied between 250 and 300 and the expense between $85,000 and $100,000.

A commission on irrigation and water rights was established March 18, 1897, to consist of the President of the Council of the New Mexico Legislature, the Speaker of the House and three others chosen by them. This commission was authorized to investigate the problem of irrigation and water rights both in New Mexico and in other parts of the United States and to make recommendations to the following Legislature.

The office of irrigation engineer was created March 16, 1905. His work was to investigate the surface waters of the Territory and to settle disputes over water rights.

The Board of Water Commissioners was authorized by an act of the Legislature, March 19, 1907. The three members appointed by the governor were given power to hear appeals on decisions of water rights made by the irrigation engineer. The law provided that the decisions of the board should be subject to appeal to the district courts.

The Territorial Highway Commission, established by law, March 16, 1909, was composed of three officers of the government, namely; the governor, the Territorial engineer and the commissioner of public lands. The irrigation engineer was made ex-officio engineer for the Highway Commission. This commission was authorized to expend the road fund created by a one mill tax and to develop a system of Territorial highways. Counties were permitted to levy a five mill tax for the purpose of assisting the Highway Commission in improving main roads.

Cattle inspectors were authorized by an act of Legislature passed March 19, 1884. The governor was instructed to appoint as many inspectors as necessary to prevent the introduction of diseased animals into the Territory. These officials were later placed under a board called the Cattle Sanitary Board and a tax was levied on cattle for the support of the work. The Cattle Sanitary Board as created February 28, 1889, consisted of five members appointed by the governor. They were given power to appoint a secretary, inspectors and other employees necessary for the inspection of cattle shipped and driven either into or out of the Territory. A tax of one-half mill was levied on all cattle to provide for the expenses of the board. This was later raised to a two mill tax. In 1895 the records of brands were transferred from the clerks of the probate courts of the counties to the Cattle Sanitary Board. The funds of the board during the '90s amounted to about $15,000, but decreased to $10,000 by 1906 at a time when the building of new railroads called for additional inspectors.

The Sheep Sanitary Board was established by the New Mexico Legislature March 18, 1897. The purpose of the law was to prevent the introduction and spread of disease among the sheep of the Territory. The board as originally authorized consisted of three sheep raisers, one from each of three districts. The number of members was increased in 1905. At that time the tax levy on sheep was made one mill, the original provision having authorized one-half mill. The board was given power to appoint a paid secretary and inspectors who were to charge fees for their work. The law provided for the dipping of sheep annually, for the inspection of all sheep brought into and taken out of the Territory, the control of all contagious diseases among sheep, and the recording of all marks. The board reported in 1901 that largely due to work of inspectors New Mexico sheep brought a higher price in the market than those of surrounding regions. The income of the board in 1905 amounted to $10,000.

The Territorial Board of Medical Examiners was created March 2, 1882. The governor was authorized to appoint seven members who were to control the licensing of physicians. The law provided for the issuing of certificates to all presenting diplomas from medical schools of good standing and for the giving of examinations to those who did not present diplomas. The board did not have authority to require examinations of those who presented diplomas from schools designated as reputable by the board.

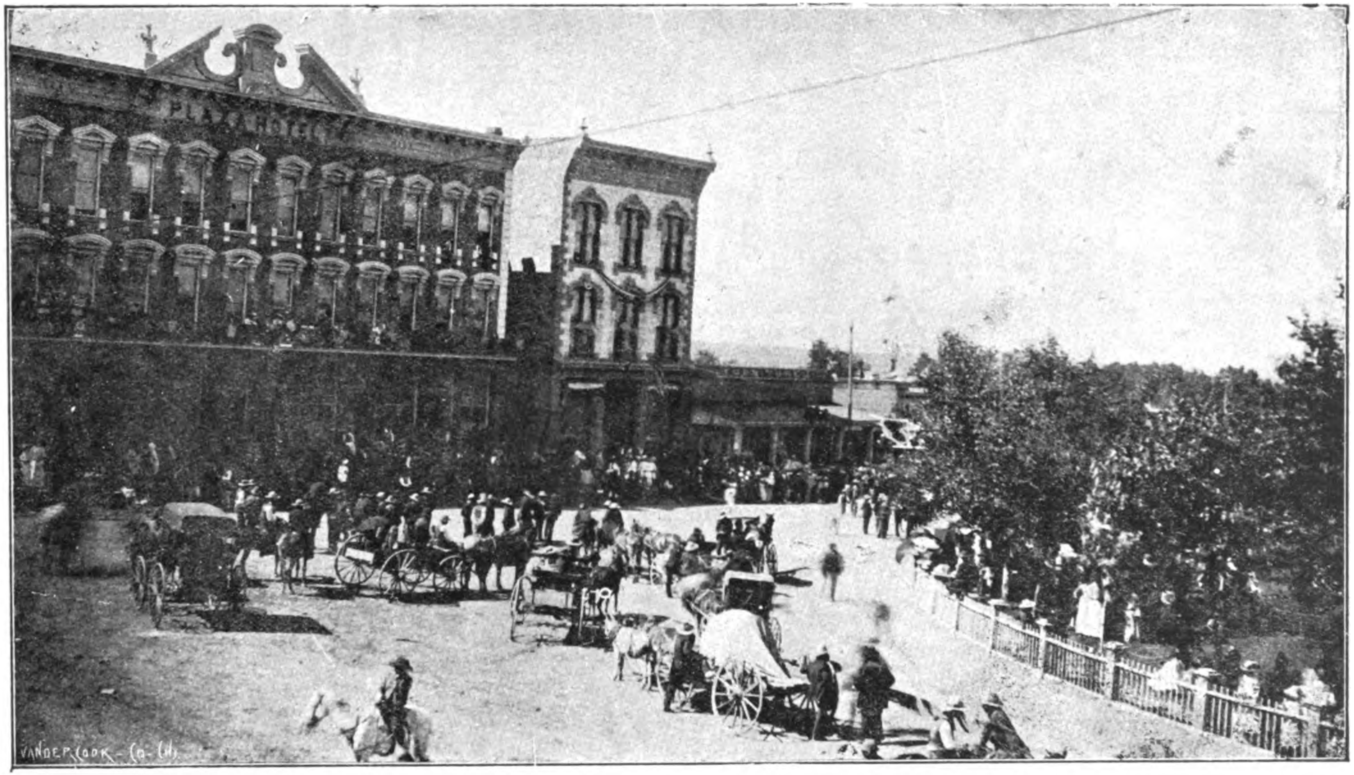
The New Mexico Board of Health was created by an act passed February 25, 1889. The law provided that county commissioners should have power to appoint county physicians and that these officials might meet and form a board of health for the Territory, with the power to control contagious diseases, inspect meat and carry out a program of vaccination. This board was not an effective department of health.

The Board of Pharmacy was established February 15, 1889. The governor was given authority to appoint five men who should issue certificates, upon examination, to applicants.

The Board of Dental examiners consisting of five members appointed by the governor was created by the New Mexico Legislature, February 23, 1893. Examinations were to be given to those who did not present diplomas from colleges of dentistry of recognized standing.

The New Mexico Board of Examiners in Optometry, created March 16, 1905, consisted of three members appointed by the governor. They were authorized to examine and issue certificates to all desiring to practice optometry in the Territory and to prosecute violations of the law relating to the profession.

The Board of Osteopathy for the examining and licensing osteopathic physicians was established March 14, 1905. The


PLAZA HOTEL
VANDERCOOK-Co-Ch

PLAZA, LAS VEGAS

board, consisting of three members, was given power to issue certificates, upon examination or credentials, to applicants and to prosecute violations of the law establishing the board.

The Board of Embalmers was created by an act of the Legislature, March 17, 1909. The governor was authorized to appoint five members who should have power to issue certificates to applicants after examination and keep a register of certificates issued.

The Board of Bar Examiners was provided for by a law passed on March 17, 1909. Provision was made for the appointment of three members by the justices of the Supreme Court of the Territory. Annual examinations for admission to the bar of the Territory were authorized. Fees were fixed and the compensation of the board was determined.

The Board of Hospital Visitors was provided for in an act passed February 2, 1880. The board consisting of the archbishop of the Territory, governor, attorney-general and the chief justice of supreme court were to inspect the work of hospitals receiving Territorial appropriations. The hospital of the Sisters of Charity had received appropriations since the '50s. The Orphan's Home and Industrial School of New Mexico was provided for in an act February 2, 1880. It was a school for orphans established in Santa Fe by the Sisters of Charity. The Grant County Hospital Society received an appropriation under an act dated March 29, 1884.

The number of hospitals receiving aid from the Territory was increased during the last twenty-five years of the Territorial period. The following institutions were receiving aid in 1906; St. Vincent's Hospital and Orphanage at Santa Fe was paid $3,604 for services to the poor; the Grant County Charity Hospital at Silver City, $2,000; the Ladies' Hospital at Deming, $1,900; The Eddy County Hospital at Carlsbad, $2,500; The St. Joseph's Hospital at Albuquerque, $2,600; and the Gallup Hospital, $2,000. Governor Hagerman stated in his message to the Territorial Legislature, January 21, 1907, that these hospitals should be supported by their respective counties rather than by the Territory. However, appropriations continued to be made during the remainder of the Territorial period.

The Miners' Hospital located at Raton, New Mexico, was created February 13, 1903, for the benefit of those injured or disabled while working in the mines of the Territory. The hospital was placed under the control of a board of trustees of five members appointed by the governor. For the support of such a hospital the Territory received 50,000 acres of land from the United States on June 21, 1898. The permanent fund derived from the sale of 4,560 acres of this grant prior to 1911 amounted to $15,746. The income fund coming from interest on the above sum and the leasing of 29,136 acres totaled $6,726.

The New Mexico Reform School, which was established by the Legislature February 13, 1903, was placed under the control of five trustees appointed by the governor. The Reform School was built at El Rito in Rio Arriba County, but the location was changed March 18, 1909, to the present location near Springer in Colfax County. The grant of lands from the United States of 50,000 acres for the support of the school produced a permanent fund by 1911 of $18,755 through the sale of 5,087 acres and an income of $5,387 from the leasing of 28,155 acres.

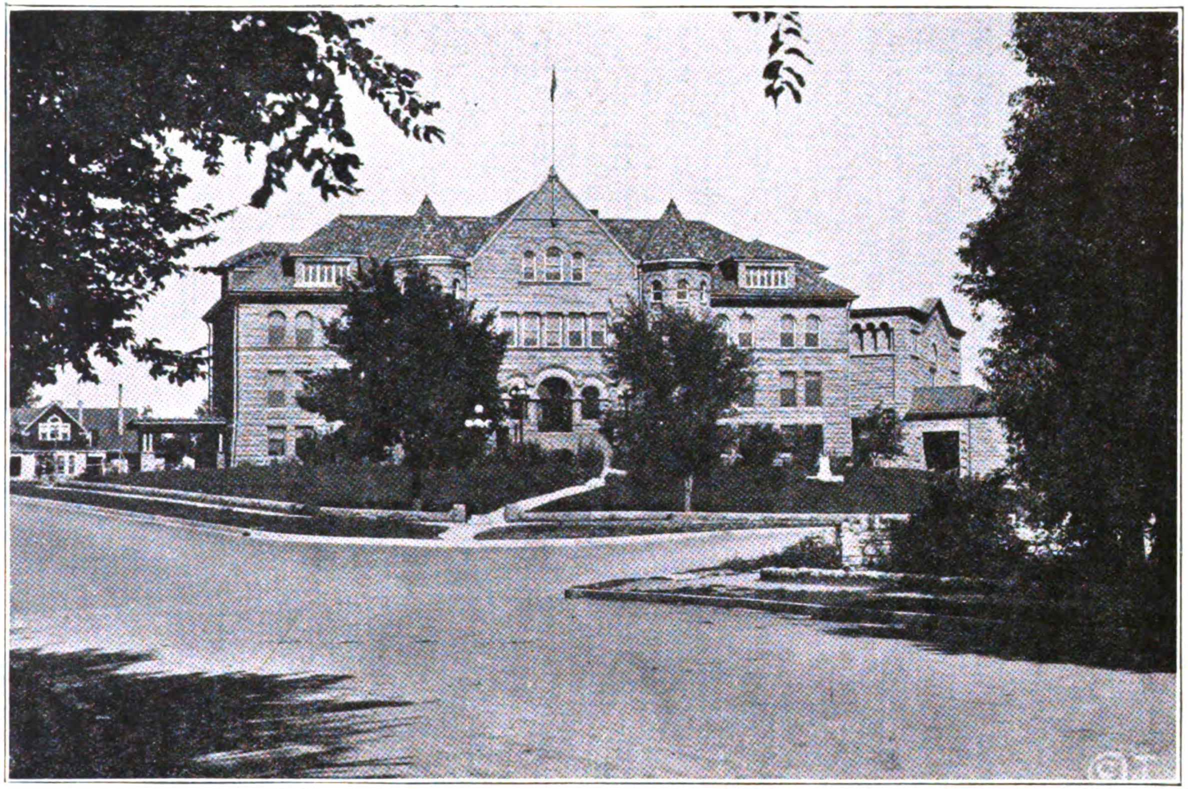
The first act for the purpose of establishing a school for the deaf and dumb was passed February 24, 1887. The controlling board was to consist of the attorney-general, the auditor and the treasurer. This act was not carried out. The New Mexico Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb was established under the act passed March 15, 1899. A board of trustees of five members appointed by the governor was given authority to conduct the asylum, which was located at Santa Fe. The land grant of 50,000 acres produced a permanent fund prior to 1911 of $24,165, and in the income fund $5,384. The amount of the lands sold was 9,927 acres and the amount leased 22,491 acres.

The New Mexico Insane Asylum was created by the New Mexico Legislature February 28, 1889. The governor was authorized to appoint a board of directors of five members who should have charge of the asylum. The United States granted 50,000 acres to assist the Territory in supporting the institution. A permanent fund of $3,820 was created from the sale of 1,390 acres and an income fund of $5,186 from the leasing of 21,326 acres.

The Territorial Board of Education was provided for in the law passed February 12, 1891. The board was composed of the governor, the superintendent of public instruction, the president of St. Michael's College, the president of the Territorial University and the president of the Agricultural College. The same act created the office of superintendent of public instruction. The land grant of 1898 for common schools amounted to 4,244,480 acres. Prior to 1911, 1,499,812 acres had been leased which produced an income fund of $371,295. The permanent fund in 1911 amounted to 111,086.

Seven educational institutions were established between 1889 and 1909. These schools were governed by boards of regents made up of the governor, the superintendent of public instruction and five members appointed by the governor. The University of New Mexico at Albuquerque was created February 28, 1889. The lands for the assistance of the school granted by the United States in 1898 amounted to 112,702 acres. An income fund of $33,944 was produced from the leasing of these lands, the area leased in 1911 being 83,042 acres.

The Agricultural College and the Agricultural Station near Las Cruces were founded February 28, 1889. The name was



New Mexico Normal University, East Las Vegas changed to the New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts on February 27, 1895. The land grant consisted of 100,014 acres. The income fund, amounting to $10,279, resulted from the leasing of 69,461 acres prior to 1911. The sale of 8,104 acres created a permanent fund of $21,500.

The New Mexico School of Mines, at Socorro, was established February 28, 1889. The land grant of 50,000 acres was leased to the extent of 21,118 acres and sold to the amount of 7,205 acres. The income fund before 1911 was $5,543, and the permanent fund $21,029.

Two Normal schools were created February 11, 1893, the one to be located at Las Vegas, and the other at Silver City. The names were defined February 27, 1895, as the New Mexico Normal School, at Las Vegas, and the New Mexico Normal School, at Silver City. The Las Vegas school became the New Mexico Normal University on February 17, 1899. The grant for these schools was 100,000 acres. The lands leased up to 1911 were 45,067 acres, and those sold amounted to 11,918 acres. The funds from these lands were equally divided between the two schools, each having an income fund that produced $4,674, and a permanent fund that amounted to $19,242.

The New Mexico Military Institute, at Roswell, was created on February 23, 1893, the Territory taking over the Goss Military Institute, a private school. The land granted for the school, 50,000 acres, produced an income fund of $3,755 prior to 1911 from the leased lands, which in that year amounted to 20,153 acres, and a permanent fund of $21,819 from the sale of 7,000 acres.

The Spanish-American Normal School, at El Rito, was established March 18, 1909. The purpose of the school was to train teachers for districts where the Spanish language was commonly spoken. No grant for the support of this school was made in the Territorial period.

The county officers prior to the creation of the boards of county commissioners in 1878 were: The probate judge, who was chief county officer, performing the duties later assigned to assessors, school officials and county commissioners; the sheriff, who was ex-officio county collector until March 18, 1897; the treasurer, who was ex-officio county collector after March 18, 1897; and clerk of the probate court, who was ex-officio county recorder beginning January 1, 1856. The offices of probate judge, clerk, sheriff and treasurer were created in 1851. The office of county coroner was established January 13, 1863, but was later discontinued and the duties were assigned to the justices of the peace.

The Boards of County Commissioners were created January 13, 1876, with large powers in control over county affairs. The boards consisted of three members elected, as other county officers, for a period of two years. By the law of March 1, 1876, the county commissioners were given authority to acts as boards of equalization in revising and correcting the assessment rolls. Control over the county roads was given to the commissioners by an act of the Legislature passed March 1, 1882. According to the law, every man was required to work two days a year on the roads or pay the equivalent, and the county commissioners were authorized to appoint precinct road supervisors. The office of county assessor was established April 2, 1884, that of superintendent of schools February 12, 1891, and the county surveyor February 14 of the same year.

County officers during the Territorial period were in some cases paid from the fees collected and in others by a per cent of the taxes assessed and collected. Salaries out of all proportion to the services rendered resulted from the methods of paying county officials. The assessor of San Miguel County in 1890 received $10,478; and the sheriff, $8,717. Governor Prince in his message to the legislative assembly stated that in some cases the sheriffs had kept both the taxes and their commissions, and that in others had made no accounting. The governor found it impossible due to the condition of accounts to prepare a complete list of taxes collected and the commissions received by the county officers.

The federal executive officials in the Territory included the surveyor general, the United States attorney and the United States marshal, the registrar and receiver of the Santa Fe land office, the superintendent of Indian affairs and five Indian agents in 1860. The office of superintendent of Indian affairs was abolished in 1874. In the same year the land office at Mesilla, later changed to Las Cruces, was established. There was also a collector of internal revenue, first appointed in 1862. He was assisted by an assessor from 1862 until June 30, 1873, when the duties of the assessor were added to those of collector.

The office of United States mine inspector for the Territory of New Mexico was created by Congress March 3, 1891. The act provided that there should be appointed an inspector of mines in each Territory producing annually more than 1,000 tons of coal. This office continued until the end of the Territorial period.

The number of United States land offices was increased from two to six between 1878 and 1911. There was a United States registrar and a United States receiver appointed for each land office. The following land districts and land offices were established: Clayton, December 18, 1888; Roswell, March 1, 1889; Tucumcari, March 16, 1908; and Fort Sumner, June 22, 1910.

The United States Land Commission was created by the act of Congress, June 21, 1898, which granted some of the public lands to the Territory. The commission consisting of the governor, the United States surveyor-general for New Mexico and the solicitor-general of the Territory was given power to select the Territorial lands.

The creation of national forests increased the federal offices in New Mexico. The superintendent of the Pecos Forest Reserve had control of the reserve along the Upper Pecos, created January 11, 1892. The office of supervisor of the Gila Forest Reserve was created to take charge of that reserve which was established March 2, 1899. Following the creation of the Lincoln Forest Reserve, July 26, 1902, and the Jemez Forest Reserve, in 1905, supervisors were appointed for these reserves. The control of forests was changed in 1908 by the creation of six districts, one of which included Arizona and New Mexico. The district was placed in charge of the district forester. The national forests, as they were called after 1907, were increased in New Mexico in 1908 by the creation of the Carson, Manzano, Zuni, Datil, Chiricahua and Alamo, each of which was controlled by a supervisor.

The Santa Fe Indian Industrial School, also called in the early period the Dawes Institute, was established by the United States and was opened April 1, 1885. The Albuquerque Indian School was established in 1886 by the United States. These institutions were placed under the control of superintendents appointed by the commissioner of Indian affairs.

The United States general army hospital at Fort Bayard was established October 3, 1899. The hospital was founded for the treatment of members of the army suffering from tuberculosis. The United States Marine Hospital for treatment of United States lighthouse service and revenue cutter service employes and United States seamen, except those in the navy, was founded at Fort Stanton, January 25, 1901.

Taxation in New Mexico was increased between 1880 and 1890. The following decade there was a decrease in the assessed valuation of property while the tax levy showed an important increase. The assessed valuation and the tax levy were doubled in the period between 1900 and 1910. Property was assessed throughout the period at about one-fifth of its actual value. The rate of taxation between 1890 and 1910 was increased from ten to thirty mills. The Territorial debt was steadily advanced in each ten year period. The following table gives the valuation of property, the taxes levied upon the property and the Territorial debt at the end of each decade from 1880 to 1910:

Decade	*Assessment*	*Levy*	*Debt*
1880	$11,363,406	$ 126,942	$ 8,358
1890	43,227,686	1,043,316	1,961,538
1900	38,633,993	1,409,834	3,580,593
1910	72,457,454	3,426,306	6,444,012

The Legislature passed an Act January 28, 1880, which provided for a ten mill tax, one-half for Territorial purposes, one-fourth for county and one-fourth for school uses. Two years later March 1, 1882 the tax levy was reduced to seven and one-half mills in a law of that date which eliminated the mill tax for the support of the schools. The law of February 12, 1891 authorized a three mill tax for schools. In 1897 the mill tax levy was made up as follows: Seven and three-quarter mills for Territorial purposes; two mills for Territorial institutions; one-half mill for the sinking fund; two and one-half mills for public schools; and three and one-half mills as a maximum for county purposes. This in all made a total of sixteen mills. According to the governor's report for 1908 the mill rate was for the Territorial levy thirteen mills making the tax levy thirty-three mills. A marked increase in the assessed valuation occurred between 1907, when the assessment was $48,509,097; and 1910, when it was $72,457,454. The increase of $2,000,000 in the tax levy between 1900 and 1910 was caused by a larger assessed value and a larger mill rate.

During the Spanish-American war 340 New Mexicans joined the First United States Volunteer Cavalry better known as Roosevelt's Rough Riders which was, under the original plans, to consist of 780 men from Arizona, New Mexico, Oklahoma and Indian Territories. The number was raised to 1,000 and a number of eastern men became members of the regiment. Following President McKinley's call for 125,000 volunteers April 23, 1898, the secretary of war informed Governor Otero that a regiment of volunteer cavalry for special duty would be organized in the Territories and headed by Leonard Wood as colonel and Theodore Roosevelt as lieutenant-colonel.

New Mexico's quota of 340 men was immediately filled and within less than a month these members were at San Antonio, Texas, where the regiment was organized. The commissioned officers of the Rough Riders from New Mexico were: Field and Staff—major, H. B. Hersey; first lieutenant and quartermaster, Sherrard Coleman; and first lieutenant and adjutant, T. W. Wall; Hospital Corps—first lieutenant, J. A. Massie; Troop E—captain, Frederick Muller; first lieutenant, H. W. Weakley; second lieutenant, Maxwell Keyes; second lieutenant, W. E. Dame; Troop G—captain, W. H. H. Llewellyn; first lieutenant, J. W. Green; second lieutenant, D. J. Leahy; Troop H—captain, George Curry; first lieutenant, W. H. Kelley; second lieutenant, C. L. Ballard; Troop I—first lieutenant, F. W. Wientge.

A second regiment, in this case infantry, made up entirely of western men from the Territories was organized as a part of the second group of volunteer troops called into the United States service. The four companies forming the New Mexico battalion were mustered in between July 8 and July 17, 1898. The following men held commissions: Company E—captain, John Borradaile; first lieutenant, L. H. Chamberlain; second lieutenant, L. A. McRae; Company F—captain, W. C. Reid; first lieutenant, W. O. Morrison; second lieutenant, A. Luntzel; Company G—

captain, William Strover; first lieutenant, Page B. Otero; second lieutenant, J. P. S. Mennett; Company H—captain, A. B. Fall; first lieutenant, J. W. Catron; and second lieutenant, N. E. Bailey. These forces were ordered to Camp Hamilton, Lexington, Kentucky, and later sent to Camp Churchman, Albany, Georgia, where they remained in camp until mustered out in February, 1899.

The First United States Volunteer Cavalry having been organized at San Antonio, Texas, was ordered to Tampa, Florida, on May 29, 1898, where it was made a part of the Second Brigade along with the First and Tenth Regular Cavalry. A cavalry division was formed of the first and second brigade and was placed under Maj.-Gen. Joseph Wheeler. On June 14 the troops at Tampa to the number of 6,000 were taken on board transports and conveyed to southeastern Cuba, the landing being made at Daiquiri about twelve miles west of Santiago de Cuba on June 22. There were 1,000 of the cavalry division in the force which landed at this time, about 500 of whom belonged to the First Volunteer Cavalry. Troops E, F, and G of the New Mexico volunteers, less than 300 in number, landed and took part in the campaign. Following the disembarkment the army was immediately marched eastward to Siboney, six miles, and then northward three miles to Las Guasimas where the retreating Spaniards were attacked on June 23. The army encamped at Las Guasimas, eight miles southeast of Santiago, until July 1. Due to the illness of General Young, Colonel Wood took charge of the Second Brigade, and Roosevelt of the First Volunteer Cavalry. On July 1 General Lawton marched northward three miles from El Poso, which was north of Guasimas, and drove the Spanish soldiers from El Caney, located three miles east of Santiago. On the same day 7,573 men including the dismounted cavalry advanced in a direction slightly north of west toward San Juan hill which was one mile east of Santiago. The charge up the hill was completed at one thirty p. m., but the position was commanded by the Spanish defense lines. The position was held and during the following week the Spanish fleet was destroyed and the City of Santiago placed in distress which resulted in the surrender of the city, July 17. The cavalry division established their camp between San Juan hill and El Caney on July 19 and on August 6 orders were received to embark. The transport Miami carrying the Rough Riders arrived at Montauk Point, at the eastern end of Long Island on August 14. After a month at Camp Wyckoff the volunteers were discharged September 15, 1898.

New Mexico Under the United States, 1846-1924.
Bibliography.

Adams, Samuel. "Exploration of the Colorado River and Its Tributaries." March 29, 1867. (Serial 1472, Doc. 37.)

"Albuquerque, in Ideal New Mexico." *Santa Fe Magazine.* V. (March, 1911), 43-48.

Anderson, G. B. "A New Mexico Baron, Charles Beaubien." *Santa Fe Magazine.* IV. (August, 1910), 65-68.

Anderson, A. D. *Silver Country, or the Great Southwest.* New York, 1877.

Arny, W. F. M. *Interesting Items Regarding New Mexico.* Santa Fe, 1873.

Bartlett, J. R. *Personal Narrative of Explorations in Texas, New Mexico* * * *. 2 vols. New York, 1856.

Beale, E. F. "Report on Construction of a Wagon Road From Fort Smith to the Colorado River." (Serial 1048, Doc. 42.)

---------- -- -- "Report of Superintendent of Wagon Road From Fort Defiance to the Colorado River." (Serial 959, Doc. 124.)

Beadle, J. H. *The Undeveloped West* * * *. Philadelphia, 1873.

Beadle, J. B. "Progress in Reclamation of Arid Lands in Western United States." (Serial 7083, Doc. 397.)

Berry, R. V. S. "Walter Ufer and Some of His Medal Pictures." *Art and Archaeology.* XVI. (1923), 66-74.

Bibo, Nathan. "The Making of Albuquerque." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XVII. (January, 1923), 55-56.

Bishop, W. H. *Old Mexico and Her Lost Provinces.* New York, 1883.

Bloodgood, D. W. "Drainage in the Mesilla Valley of New Mexico." State College, N. M., A. E. S. *Bulletin* 129. 1921.

Box, M. J. *Adventures in New and Old Mexico.* New York, 1869.

Bradley, G. D. *The Story of the Santa Fe.* Boston, 1920.

---------- -- -- *Winning the Southwest.* Chicago, 1912.

---------- -- -- "Builders of the Santa Fe." *Santa Fe Magazine.* 1914-1917.

"Breeders of Pure Bred Livestock in New Mexico." State College, N. M. *Extension Circular* 67. 1921.

Brevoort, Elias. *New Mexico* * * *. Santa Fe, 1874.

Brook, H. H. *The International Aspects of the Rio Grande Project.* Las Cruces, N. M., 1923.

Browne, J. R. *Adventures in the Apache Country.* New York, 1871.

Bryan, E. A. "Proposed Development of the Colorado River." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XVI. (November, 1922), 55-56.

Bureau of Immigration, New Mexico. *Bernalillo County.* Albuquerque, N. M., 1906.

---------- -- -- *Mines of New Mexico.* Santa Fe, 1896.

Burton, E. B. "The Taos Rebellion." *Old Santa Fe.* I. (1913-14), 176-210.

---------- -- -- "Volunteer Soldiers of New Mexico." *Old Santa Fe.* (1913-14), 386-419.

Campbell, A. H. "Report on the Pacific Wagon Roads Constructed, 1857-1859." (Serial 1008, Doc. 108.)

Census Bureau. *Reports,* 1850-1920.

Chapman, Arthur. "A Cowboy War in New Mexico." *Santa Fe Magazine.* VI. (November, 1912), 65-72.

Coan, C. F. "The County Boundaries of New Mexico." *The Southwestern Political Science Quarterly.* III. (1922), 252-86.

Connelley, W. E. *Doniphan's Expedition and the Conquest of New Mexico and California.* Kansas City, 1907.

Cooke, St. George. *Conquest of New Mexico and California.* New York, 1878.

"Cowboys' Reunion at Las Vegas." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XIV. (July, 1920), 31-34.

Cozzens, S. W. *Marvellous Country.* Boston, 1876.

Crawford, F. A. "Westward Over the Scenic Santa Fe." *Santa Fe Magazine.* X. (May, 1916), 43-49.

Cutts, J. M. *Conquest of California and New Mexico.* Philadelphia, 1847.

Curry, Governor George. *Message to the Thirty-eighth Legislative Assembly of New Mexico.* January 18, 1909, pp. 1-36.

---------- -- -- *Report to the Secretary of the Interior.* Sept. 15, 1907, pp. 5-32; Sept. 15, 1908, pp. 3-27; Sept. 15, 1909, pp. 1-28.

Darton, N. H. "A Reconnaissance of Parts of Northwestern New Mexico * * *." U. S. G. S., *Bulletin* 435. (Serial 5755.)

---------- -- --, and others. "Guide of the Western United States. Part C. The Santa Fe Route." U. S. G. S., *Bulletin* 613.

Davis, W. W. H. *El Gringo* * * *. New York, 1857.

Derby, G. H. "Report of a Reconnaissance of the Gulf of California and the Colorado River * * *." (Serial 620, Doc. 81.)

Day, D. T. "Report on the Mineral Industries in the United States at the Eleventh Census, 1890." (Serial 3008, Doc. 340.)

Director of the Mint. "Report Upon the Production of the Precious Metals in the United States During the Calendar Year 1884." (Serial 2308, Doc. 268.)

Donaldson, Thomas. *The Public Domain.* Washington, D. C., 1884.

Drum, H. C. "Motoring on the Santa Fe Trail." *Santa Fe Magazine.* V. (November, 1911), 35-45.

Edwards, F. S. *Campaigning in New Mexico With Colonel Doniphan* * * *. Philadelphia, 1847.

Ellis, R. W. "The Oil Situation in New Mexico." State University of New Mexico. *Bulletin* 101. 1920.

Emory, W. H. "Notes of a Military Reconnaissance of the Route From Fort Leavenworth to San Diego." Dec. 15, 1847. (Serial 505, Doc. 7.)

---------- -- -- "Report on the United States and Mexican Boundary Survey." 3 vols. (Serial 832-34, Doc. 108.)

Espinosa, A. M. "The Spanish Language in New Mexico * * *." Historical Society of New Mexico. *Publication* 16. Santa Fe, 1911.

---------- -- -- "Studies in New Mexico Spanish." University of New Mexico. *Bulletin* 53. Albuquerque, N. M., 1909.

Fillmore, Millard. "Message * * * on California and New Mexico. (Serial 573, Doc. 17.)

Finlay, J. R. *Report of Appraisal of Mining Properties of New Mexico.* Santa Fe, 1922.

Frost, Max, and P. A. F. Walter. *The Land of Sunshine.* Santa Fe, 1904.

Garber, P. N. *The Gadsden Treaty.* Philadelphia, 1923.

Garcia, Fabian. "Shade Trees and Other Ornamentals." Mesilla Park, N. M. A. E. S. *Bulletin* 47. 1903.

Garrard, L. H. *Wah-to-yah, and the Taos Trail.* Cincinnati, 1850.

Garrett, P. F. *Authentic Life of Billy, the Kid.* Santa Fe, 1882.

Gleed, C. S. "The Rehabilitation of the Santa Fe Railway System." *Santa Fe Magazine.* VII. (December, 1912), 35-49.

Gordon, Clarence. "Report on Cattle, Sheep and Swine * * * in 1880." (Serial 2131, Doc. 42.)

Gorman, Mrs. Samuel. "Samuel Gorman." *Old Santa Fe.* I. (1913-14), 308-11.

Goss, Arthur. "The Value of Rio Grande Water for the Purpose of Irrigation." Las Cruces, N. M. A. E. S. *Bulletin* 12. 1893.

Hagerman, Governor H. J. Report to the Secretary of the Interior. Sept. 15, 1906, pp. 3-752.

---------- ---- -- -- *Message to the Thirty-seventh Legislative Assembly of New Mexico.* Jan. 21, 1907. pp. 3-52.

Hall, E. H. *Great West* * * *. New York, 1866.

Hayes, A. A. *New Colorado and the Santa Fe Trail.* New York, 1880.

---------- -- -- *The New Mexican Campaign of 1862.* n. p., n. d.

Herrick, C. L., and D. W. Johnson. "The Geology of the Albuquerque Sheet." University of New Mexico. *Bulletin,* vol. 2, pt. 1.

Higgins, C. A. *To California Over the Santa Fe Trail.* Chicago, 1908.

Hobard, G. R. *The Pathfinders From River to Ocean.* Chicago, 1913.

Hodgin, C. E. *The Early School Laws of New Mexico.* University of New Mexico. *Bulletin.*

Hough, Emerson. *Story of the Outlaw.* New York, 1907.

Hughes, J. T. *Doniphan's Expedition.* Topeka, Kan., 1907.

"In the Days of Strenuous Life in Raton." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XIII. (April, 1919), 73-75.

Ingersoll, Ernest. *The Crest of the Continent* * * *. Chicago, 1885.

Ives, J. C. "Report Upon the Colorado River Explored in 1857 and 1858 * * *." (Serial 1058, Doc. 90.)

James, G. W. *Reclaiming the Arid West.* New York, 1917.

Johnson, Clifton. *Highways and Byways of the Rocky Mountains.* New York, 1910.

Johnson, W. T. "The Santa Fe of the Future." School of American Archaeology. *Papers* No. 31. n. p. 1916.

Johnston, J. E. "Report of Reconnaissance of Routes From San Antonio to El Paso. (Serial 562, Doc. 64.)

Jones, F. A. *Epitome of the Economic Geology of New Mexico.* Albuquerque, N. M., 1908.

---------- -- -- "Mining Statutes of New Mexico and of the United States * * *." New Mexico School of Mines. *Bulletin* 1. 1916.

Jones, Meredith, "Reminiscent of the Days of '78." *Santa Fe Magazine.* IX. (June, 1915), 61-63.

"Journal of New Mexico Convention of Delegates * * * September, 1849." Historical Society of New Mexico. *Publication* 10. Santa Fe, 1907.

Koehler, Jr., A. E., ed. *New Mexico, the Land of the Opportunity.* Albuquerque, N. M., 1915.

Lane, D. R. "Church of Acoma Prototype of the New Mexico Building." *Santa Fe Magazine.* VIII. (November, 1914), 15-18.

Laut, Agnes. *Through Our Unknown Southwest.* New York, 1913.

Lee, W. T. "Raton-Brilliant-Koehler Folio. New Mexico-Colorado, No. 214. *Geologic Atlas of the United States.* 1922.

---------- -- -- and G. H. Girty. "The Manzano Group of the Rio Grande Valley, New Mexico." U. S. G. S. *Bulletin* 389.

Lindgren, Waldemar, and others. "The Ore Deposits of New Mexico." U. S. G. S. *Professional Paper* 68.

Lindsey, Governor W. E. *Message to the Special Session of the Third State Legislature.* May 1, 1917. pp. 1-6.

Lummis, C. F. *A Tramp Across the Continent.* New York, 1908.

Lucero, Antonio. "Early School Days in New Mexico." *Old Santa Fe.* II. (1914-15), 200-205.

MacCauley, C. A. H. "Report on the San Juan Reconnaissance of 1877." (Serial 1846, Doc. 1.)

McCormick, Howard. "The Artist's Southwest." *American Museum Journal.* XIII. (1913), 118-25.

McDonald, W. C. *Message to the First State Legislature.* March 12, 1912. pp. 1-38.

__________ -- -- *Message to the Second Session of the First State Legislature.* Jan. 15, 1913. pp. 1-37.

Macomb, J. N. *Report of Expedition From Santa Fe to the Junction of the Grand and the Green Rivers* * * * *in 1859.* Washington, D. C., 1876.

"Map Showing National Parks and Monuments." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XIII. (September, 1919), 17.

"Map Showing Relation of the St. L., R. M. & P. to the Santa Fe. *Santa Fe Magazine.* VII. (September, 1913), 86.

Marcy, R. B. *Prairie Traveller* * * *. New York, 1859.

__________ -- -- "Report on Route From Fort Smith to Santa Fe." (Serial 562, Doc. 64.)

__________ -- -- *Thirty Years of Army Life on the Border.* New York, 1866.

Maxwell Irrigated Land Company. *Irrigated Lands on the Maxwell Grant, New Mexico.* Maxwell City, N. M., 1908.

Meline, J. F. *Two Thousand Miles of Horseback.* New York, 1873.

Miller, C. D. *The Irrigation Resources of New Mexico.* Santa Fe, 1911.

Mills, Anson, and W. W. Follett. "Investigation and Survey for International Dam and Reservoir on Rio Grande del Norte * * *." U. S. G. S. *General Publications.* 1896.

Mills, Governor W. J. *Report to the Secretary of the Interior.* Sept. 15, 1910, pp. 3-39; Sept. 15, 1911, pp. 3-44.

"Montezuma Hotel Becomes College." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XIV. (February, 1920), 46.

Moody, John. "The Romance of the Railways." *Santa Fe Magazine.* IV. (February, 1910), 47-53.

Morley, S. G. "Development of the Santa Fe Style of Architecture." *Santa Fe Magazine.* IX. (June, 1915), 25-32.

__________ -- -- "Santa Fe Architecture." *Old Santa Fe.* II. (1914-15), 278-301.

Morrow, W. W. *Spanish and Mexican Private Land Grants.* San Francisco, Cal., 1923.

Mote, O. S. "Reminiscent of the Frontier Days of Raton, New Mexico." *Santa Fe Magazine.* VII. (October, 1913), 61-62.

Mowry, Sylvester. *Mines of the West.* New York, 1864.

__________ ______ *Memoir of the Proposed Territory of Arizona.* Washington, D. C., 1857.

Mundell, J. E. and H. G. Smith. "Dry Farming in Eastern New Mexico." State College, N. M., A. E. S. *Bulletin* 104. 1917.

Newell, F. H. "The Reclamation of the West." (Serial 4740, Doc. 748; Serial 4885, Doc. 430; Serial 6061, Doc. 1217.)

New Mexico. *Compiled Laws.* Codification 1864, 1 vol.; Codification 1884, 1 vol.; Codification 1897, 2 vols.; Codification 1915, 1 vol.

New Mexico. *The Legislative Bluebook of the Territory.* 5 vols. 1882, 1905, 1907, 1909, 1911.

New Mexico. *Session Laws.* 19 vols., 1851-1869; 19 vols., 1871-1909; 6 vols., 1909-1923.

Nicholl, E. M. *Observations of a Ranchwoman in New Mexico.* London, 1898.

Otero, Governor M. A. *Report to the Secretary of the Interior.* Sept. 11, 1897, pp. 3-164; Sept. 12, 1900, pp. 3-445; Sept. 14, 1901, pp. 5-546; Sept. 15, 1902, pp. 1-638; Sept. 15, 1903, pp. 1-657; Sept. 15, 1904, pp. 1-304; Sept. 15, 1905, pp. 3-147.

---------- ------ -- -- Message to the Thirty-fourth Legislative Assembly of New Mexico. January 21, 1901. pp. 1-13.

"Official List of Stations, July, 1886." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XI. (February, 1917), 63.

"Operations in Texas, New Mexico and Arizona, June 11, 1861, to February 1, 1862. *War of the Rebellion,* Ser. 1, vol. IV., pp. 1-174. Also in vols. IX, XV, XXVI, XXXIV, XLVIII.

"Our Agents of 1882." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XVI. (April, 1922), 58.

Paige, Sidney. "Copper Deposits of the Tyrone District." U. S. G. S. *Professional Paper* 122. 1922.

Pancoast, C. L. "Naming Towns on the New Mexico Division." *Santa Fe Magazine.* IV. (July, 1910), 33-37.

Parke, J. G. "Report of Explorations * * * From Doña Ana to the Pima Villages." (Serial 792, Doc. 91.)

Parks, C. E. "The Lure of Old Santa Fe." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XV. (October, 1921), 15-24.

Parsons, Edward. "Recollections of My Life in New Mexico During the Eighties." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XIV. (May, 1920), 23-31.

Peters, D. C. *Life and Adventures of Kit Carson * * *.* New York, 1859.

Pettis, G. H. "The California Column * * *." Historical Society of New Mexico. *Publication* 11. Santa Fe, 1908.

---------- -- -- "Kit Carson's Fight With the Comanche and Kiowa Indians." Historical Society of New Mexico. *Publications* 12. Santa Fe, 1908.

Pope, John. "Report of the Exploration for a Railroad Route Near the Thirty-second Parallel * * *." (Serial 792, Doc. 91.)

Powell, J. W. "Report Upon the Lands of the Arid Region of the United States." (Serial 1805, Doc. 73.)

Prince, Governor L. B. *Message to the Twenty-ninth Legislative Assembly of New Mexico.* Dec. 30, 1890. pp. 1-43.

__________ ______ __ __ *New Mexico's Struggle for Statehood* * * *. Santa Fe, 1910.

__________ ______ __ __ *Report to the Secretary of the Interior.* Oct. 12, 1891, pp. 7-44; Sept. 21, 1892, pp. 7-43.

"Public Lands Commission Report." March 2, 1905. (Serial 4766, Doc. 189.)

Raymond, R. W. "Report on the Statistics of Mines West of the Rocky Mountains." March 17, 1870. (Serial 1424, Doc. 207.)

__________ __ __ Same. Feb. 18, 1874. (Serial 1608, Doc. 141.)

__________ __ __ "Report of the Commissioner of Mining Statistics." April 13, 1876. (Serial 1691, Doc. 159.)

Reagan, A. B. "Geology of the Jemez-Albuquerque Region." *American Geologist.* XXXI. (1903), 68-110.

Reclamation Service. *Annual Reports.* Sept. 1, 1915; Sept. 11, 1916; Sept. 10, 1919. Washington, D. C.

"Restoring the Santa Fe Trail." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XIII. (April, 1919), 43-50.

"Ripley, the Empire Builder." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XIV. (March, 1920), 38-40.

Ritch, W. G. *Aztlan, the History of New Mexico.* Boston, 1885.

__________ __ __ *Inaugural Address of the President of the Historical Society of New Mexico.* Feb. 21, 1881. Santa Fe, 1881.

Root, F. A. *Overland Stage to California* * * *. Topeka, Kan., 1901.

Ross, Governor E. G. *Message to the Twenty-eighth Legislative Assembly of New Mexico.* Dec. 29, 1889. pp. 1-83.

__________ ______ __ __ *Report to the Secretary of the Interior.* Oct. 21, 1885, pp. 4-11.

Ruffner, E. H. "Report on Lines of Communication Between Southern Colorado and Northern New Mexico." June 30, 1876. (Serial 1745, Doc. 1.)

Rushing, J. F. *Across America.* New York, 1874.

Sage, R. B. *Rocky Mountain Life* * * *. Boston, 1880.

Saunders, C. F. "In and Around Old Santa Fe." Santa Fe Magazine. VI. (August, 1912), 23-31.

Shotwell, A. J. "James Bridger." *Old Santa Fe.* III. (1916), 259-66.

Signal Officer, Chief. "Report Relating to Irrigation and Water Storage in the Arid Regions." Feb. 28, 1891. (Serial 2868, Doc. 287.)

Sillman, B. "The Mineral Regions of Southern New Mexico." The American Institute of Mining Engineers, *Transactions.* X. (1882), 424-44. Easton, Pa.

Simpson, J. H. "Report on an Expedition Into the Navajo Country * * *." (Serial 562, Doc. 64.)

Sitgreaves, Captain. "Report of an Expedition Down the Zuni River and the Colorado River." (Serial 668, Doc. 59.)

Smith, H. N. *Address of Hugh N. Smith of New Mexico* * * *. n. p. n. d.

Smythe, W. E. *The Conquest of Arid America.* New York, 1911.

Stone, W. F. "The United States Court of Private Land Claims." New Mexico Bar Association, *Minutes.* 1904, pp. 6-26.

"Story of the Buffalo." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XI. (February, 1917), 15-28.

Sullivan, V. L. "Irrigation in New Mexico." U. S. Experimental Station. *Bulletin* 215. 1909.

Sully, J. M. "The Story of the Santa Rita Mine." *Old Santa Fe.* III. (1916), 133-49.

Thayer, W. M. *Marvels of the New West.* Norwich, Conn., 1888.

Thornton, Governor W. E. *Report to the Secretary of the Interior.* Sept. 21, 1893, pp. 3-33; Oct. 10, 1894, pp. 3-43; Oct. 15, 1895, pp. 3-75.

Tight, W. G. "Clarence Luther Herrick." *American Geologist.* XXXVI. (1905), 1-26.

Twitchell, R. E. "Chief Justice Kirby Benedict." *Old Santa Fe.* I. (1913-14), 49-92.

---------- -- -- "The Confederate Invasion of New Mexico." *Old Santa Fe.* III. (1916), 5-43.

---------- -- -- "The Story of the Conquest of Santa Fe * * *." Historical Society of New Mexico. *Publication* 24.

---------- -- -- "Historical Sketch of William Carr Lane * * *." Historical Society of New Mexico. *Publication* 20. Santa Fe, 1917.

---------- -- -- *History of the Military Occupation of the Territory of New Mexico From 1846 to 1851.* Denver, 1909.

---------- -- -- "Monuments of the Pioneers." *Santa Fe Magazine.* V. (February, 1911), 27-34.

---------- -- -- ed. *Sixteenth National Irrigation Congress.* Denver, 1908.

Van Tramp, J. C. *Prairie and Rocky Mountain Adventures* * * *. Columbus, Ohio, 1866.

Vierra, Carlos. "Our Native Architecture in Its Relation to Santa Fe." School of American Archaeology. *Papers* 39. n. p., 1917.

Wallace, Governor Lew. *Report of the Secretary of the Interior.* Sept. 23, 1879, pp. 39-46.

Walter, P. A. F. "El Palacio Real." *Old Santa Fe.* I. (1913-14), 333-34.

__________ __ __ __ "An Inspirational Mecca Taking Form in Santa Fe." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XII. (February, 1918), 27-30.

__________ __ __ __ "Restoration of the Palace of the Governors." *Santa Fe Magazine.* VIII. (December, 1913), 23-28.

__________ __ __ __ "The Santa Fe Fiesta." *Santa Fe Magazine.* XIV. (September, 1920), 27-29.

__________ __ __ __ "The Santa Fe-Taos Art Movement." *Art and Archaeology.* IV. (1916), 330-38.

__________ __ __ __ "William Hayes Pope * * *." *Old Santa Fe.* III. (1916), 374-85.

Warner, R. L. "Louis Akin, American Artist." *American Museum Journal.* XIII. (1913), 112-18.

Warren, G. K. "Memoir to Accompany Map of the United States From the Mississippi River to the Pacific Ocean." (Serial 801, Doc. 91.)

Wheeler, G. M. "Geographical Surveys * * * West of the One Hundredth Meridian * * *." June 30, 1873 (Serial 1598, Doc. 1); June 30, 1874 (Serial 1637, Doc. 1); June 30, 1875 (Serial 1676, Doc. 1); June 30, 1876 (Serial 1745, Doc. 1); June 30, 1877 (Serial 1796, Doc. 1); June 30, 1878 (Serial 1846, Doc. 1); June 30, 1879 (Serial 1906, Doc. 1); June 30, 1880 (Serial 1955, Doc. 1); June 30, 1881 (Serial 2013, Doc. 1).

Whipple, A. W. "Report of Explorations for a Railway Route Near the Thirty-fifth Parallel * * *." (Serial 793, Doc. 91.)

Wiley, R. W. "The Heart of the Well Country." *Santa Fe Magazine.* X. (March, 1916), 51-56.

Wilson, H. T. *Historical Sketch of Las Vegas, New Mexico.* Chicago, n. d.

Wislizenus, A. "Memoir of a Tour of Northern Mexico * * * in 1846 and 1847." (Serial 511, Doc. 26.)

Wooton, E. O. "The Range Problem in New Mexico." Agricultural College, N. M., A. E. S. *Bulletin* 66. 1908.

CHAPTER XXIV

RAILROADS, MINING AND POPULATION, 1879 TO 1911

The building of railroads in New Mexico between 1878 and 1911 brought about a fourfold increase in population and the extensive development of resources. Early in 1879 the Denver and Rio Grande officials claimed that the Santa Fe had broken the contract under which the D. & R. G. had been taken over by increasing the rate over the D. & R. G. line between Denver and Pueblo. This had been done to force traffic into Southern and Central Colorado over the Santa Fe, instead of allowing it to pass by way of the Union Pacific and the Kansas Pacific through Denver. The president of the Denver and Rio Grande in April declared publicly that the Santa Fe had broken the agreement in making these rates which decreased traffic over the lines of the Denver and Rio Grande between Denver and Pueblo. The decision of the United States Supreme Court favorable to the Denver and Rio Grande was issued April 21, 1879, and two days later suit was brought to cancel the lease. At the end of a year of trouble, in courts and out, an agreement was made February 2, 1880, by which the lease was cancelled, the Denver and Rio Grande paying the Santa Fe for the work done in the Royal Gorge of Colorado and agreeing to stop its New Mexico extension at a point fifty miles north of Santa Fe. In return the Santa Fe was not to build to Leadville or Denver. The contest, as it worked out was favorable for the Santa Fe because, while the trouble in Colorado consumed the time of the Denver and Rio Grande, the Santa Fe was rapidly extending its line southward through New Mexico to Mexico and, by connection with the Southern Pacific, gaining an outlet to the Pacific Coast.

During the first half of 1879 the Santa Fe completed the 114 miles from Raton Pass to Las Vegas and the tunnel at Raton Pass. The latter part of the year and the early months of 1880 witnessed the building of an eighteen-mile branch to Santa Fe finished on February 9, and the extension of the main line southward to Albuquerque by April 15. When the Santa Fe line reached San Marcial, October 1, 1880, the total extent of the railroad in New Mexico was 353 miles. Late in the same month arrangements were made with the Southern Pacific for a Pacific Coast outlet. The Jornado del Muerto was crossed and from Rincon at the southern end two lines were built: the one to Deming, finished on March 8. 1881; and the other to El Paso, completed on June 11. At Deming the connection was made with the Southern Pacific; and at El Paso, with the Mexican Central, which was being built.

The Santa Fe Railroad during 1879 secured an interest in the franchise of the Atlantic and Pacific Railroad which had been chartered by Congress, July 27, 1866, to build a line along the thirty-fifth parallel to the Pacific Coast. The Atlantic and Pacific consolidated and leased lines, principally in Missouri, until by 1872 it had about 844 miles. The company became involved, failed to pay interest on bonds and a part of it consisting of 293 miles was sold September 8, 1876, for $450,000. W. F. Buckley purchased this railroad as representative of the newly formed St. Louis and San Francisco Railroad Company. This organization planned to build westward under the charter of the Atlantic and Pacific. It was with this company that the Santa Fe, December 6, 1879, made an agreement for joint building of the line westward from Albuquerque along the thirty-fifth parallel. A new Atlantic and Pacific Company was created by the Santa Fe, and the Saint Louis and San Francisco Railroad. The central division of the Atlantic and Pacific extended from Vinita, Indian Territory, the terminal of the "Frisco" line to Albuquerque; and the western division, which under the final agreement made January 31, 1880, was to be immediately constructed, included the route from Albuquerque to the Pacific Coast. The work was begun in the summer of 1880 and 200 miles were completed by July, 1881, the tracks having crossed the New Mexico line into Arizona.

ALBUQUERQUE IN EARLY DAYS

The Southern Pacific Railroad, with which the Santa Fe made an agreement for an outlet to the Pacific Coast in October, 1880, had expanded rapidly during the later seventies. During the same period the Texas Pacific Railroad was building westward from San Antonio. The act chartering the Texas Pacific in 1871, provided that the Southern Pacific should be allowed to build from Los Angeles to the Colorado River to connect with the Texas Pacific. The Southern Pacific Railroad June 30, 1875, controlled 342 miles in Southern California and a year later 711 miles. The construction of the line reached the Colorado River at Yuma in May of 1877. Between 1879 and 1881 the Southern Pacific built 293 miles across Southern Arizona from Yuma through Tucson and 170 miles across Southwestern New Mexico from Stein's Pass through Lordsburg and Deming to El Paso. The line from San Antonio, Texas, to El Paso, Texas, was completed in January 1883.

During the '80s the Santa Fe Railroad built a number of branches in addition to the road from Santa Fe to Lamy which has been mentioned above. In almost every case these were lines to mines. The most northern branch, constructed in 1881, ran from Dillon in Colfax County to Blossburg, a distance of six miles. The road from Las Vegas to Hot Springs in San Miguel County, six and a half miles in length, was built in 1882. A five mile branch was run from Waldo to Madrid in Santa Fe County. Two lines were built in Socorro County: the one running westward from Socorro to Magdalena; and the other eastward from San Antonio to Carthage. The line to Magdalena, laid down in 1884, was extended to Kelly in 1885, giving the road a total length of thirty-one miles. The Carthage branch, built in 1882 was ten miles in length. The line to Lake Valley in the southern part of Sierra County from Nutt, which is about half way between Rincon and Deming, was constructed in 1884, the length being thirteen miles. The branch line from Deming to Silver City in Grant County was completed May 1, 1883, a distance of forty-eight miles.

The Denver and Rio Grande Railroad constructed two narrow gauge lines into New Mexico from Conejos, Colorado; the one extending westward along the northern boundary of Rio Arriba County to Durango, Colorado; and the other southward along the western boundary of Taos County to Espanola and Santa Fe in Santa Fe County. The road to Espanola was built in 1880 and was extended to Santa Fe in 1885. The track is about 100 miles long. The line westward to Durango, of which about seventy miles were laid within New Mexico, was built between 1880 and 1882.

The railroads of New Mexico in 1890 amounted to 1,324 miles. The Santa Fe Railroad including its interest in the Atlantic and Pacific and its branch lines was by far the most important and connected with the principal setlements of the Territory. The Southern Pacific in the south and the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad in the north, each with about 174 miles, affected the development of the Territory only slightly as compared with the Santa Fe Railroad.

Several short branch lines were built in the late eighties and the early nineties. The Tres Piedras lumber branch and the Chama lumber branch of the Denver and Rio Grande were built in 1885. These lines had a total length of five miles. In Southwestern New Mexico two mining roads were built. The Arizona and New Mexico Railway with thirty miles in New Mexico was extended from Lordsburg to Clifton, Arizona, by the Arizona Copper Company prior to October 1891. This line was changed from narrow gauge to standard gauge in 1901. The branch from Whitewater, fifteen miles south of Silver City, to Hanover and Fierro was built in 1891. This mining road was eighteen miles in length.

The principal railroad development in the early nineties was the construction of the Pecos Valley Railroad. The Pecos Valley Railway Company was incorporated August 27, 1890, and the line was constructed from Pecos City, Texas, to Eddy, New Mexico, a distance of ninety-seven miles by October, 1891. The name of the town Eddy was later changed to Carlsbad. It was stated September 21, 1892, that the line would be continued northward to a junction with the Santa Fe Railroad. In April, 1894, work was begun between Eddy and Roswell and completed in October of the same year. The Pecos Valley Railway Company became insolvent in 1896 and was re-organized June 14, 1897, as the Pecos Valley and Northeastern Railway Company, the charter providing for an extension of the road to Amarillo, Texas. The railroad from Roswell to Amarillo, Texas, which was built in 1898 crossed the Pecos near Acme and ran in a northeasterly direction bringing into existence the Town of Portales, the present county seat of Roosevelt County. In 1901 J. J. Hagerman, who had been the principal promoter of the Pecos Valley Railway and the Pecos Valley and Northeastern Railway, negotiated the sale of the line to the Santa Fe Railroad. This road from Pecos, Texas, to Amarillo, Texas, added 192 miles to the railroads of New Mexico. At Pecos it connected with the Texas Pacific Railroad and at Amarillo with the Santa Fe Railroad.

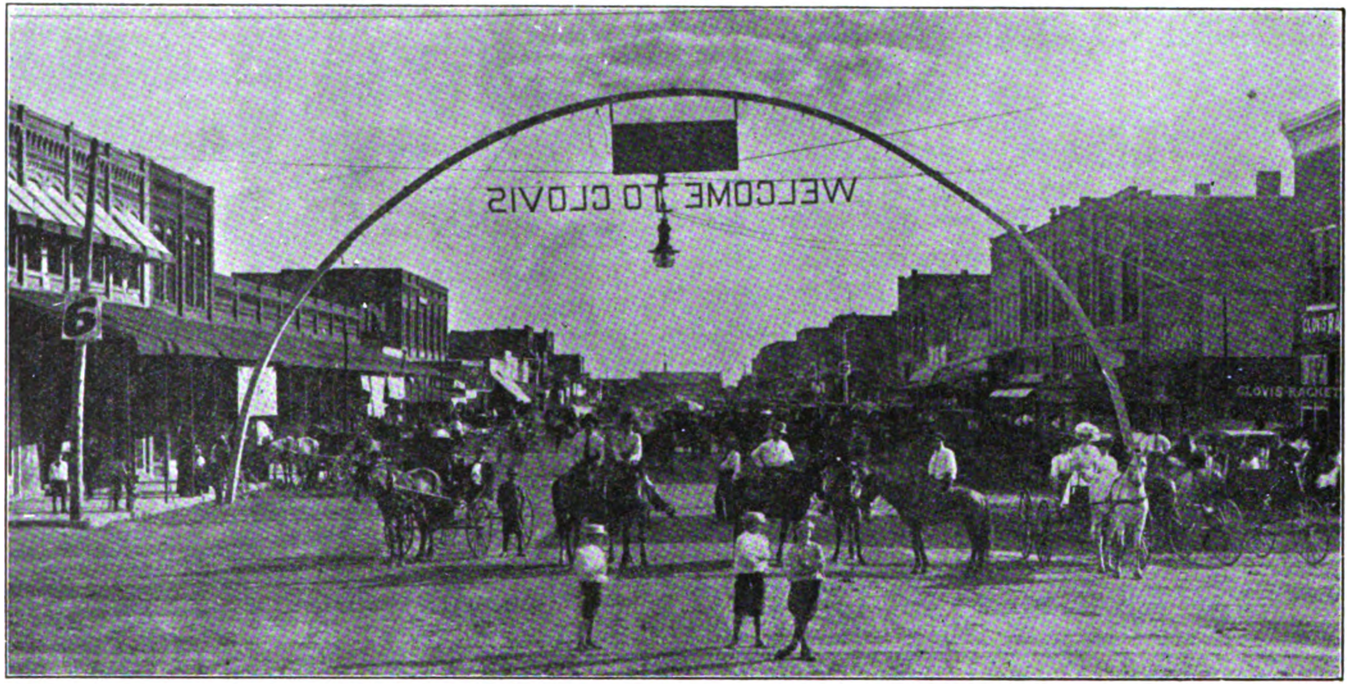
A group of railroad companies were organized about 1900 which were connected with Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific Railway and with the Phelps Dodge Company, for the construction of railroads in New Mexico. The companies which built the main line from Nara Visa where the road entered New Mexico were the following: The Chicago, Rock Island and El Paso Railway, incorporated December 18, 1900; The El Paso and Rock Island Railway, incorporated December 11, 1900; and The El Paso and Northeastern Railway, incorporated October 21, 1897. Other companies which built lines connected with this system were: The Dawson Railway Company, incorporated July 13, 1901; the Alamogordo and Sacramento Mountain Railway, incorporated March 24, 1898; and the El Paso and Southwestern Railroad, incorporated October 19, 1900.

These railroads supplied transportation for a large area lying between the Pecos Valley Railroad and the Santa Fe Railroad. The Chicago, Rock Island and El Paso Railway built the line from Nara Visa to Santa Rosa in 1901. From Santa Rosa to Carrizozo, the El Paso and Rock Island Railway had 130 miles of track under construction at that time. The line from Carrizozo through Alamogordo to El Paso was completed by the El Paso and Northeastern Railway with the exception of a part of the line between Carrizozo and Alamogordo during 1901.

The most important extension of this system was the building of the El Paso and Southwestern Railway by the Phelps Dodge Company. This road was begun in 1901 and built due westward from El Paso to Arizona. A branch line of thirty miles in length from Hachita to Lordsburg was started at the same time for the purpose of connection with the railroad from Lordsburg to Clifton, Arizona, owned by the Arizona Copper Company. The branch of the El Paso and Southwestern Railway from Hermanas to Deming, a distance of about thirty miles, was also under construction in 1901. The Alamogordo and Sacramento Railway completed in 1900 a line to Cloudcroft, with branches leading to timber areas, amounting in all to twenty-one miles. The branch from Carrizozo to Capitan was under construction in 1901. The Dawson Railway Company constructed the longest branch of the Rock Island System in New Mexico north of El Paso. This line ran from Tucumcari northwestward following the Canadian Valley, crossed the Santa Fe line at French, New Mexico between Springer and Maxwell City and terminated at Dawson, the seat of coal mines. This branch was 110 miles in length.

The railroad mileage of New Mexico was summarized as follows:

	miles	Total system miles
Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Ry.	849	
Pecos Valley & Northeastern Ry.	192	1,041
Chicago, Rock Island & El Paso Ry.	111	
El Paso Rock Island Ry. (under const'ct'n)	130	
Dawson Railway (under construction)	110	
El Paso & Northeastern Ry.	154	
El Paso & Southwestern Ry.	260	
Arizona & New Mexico Ry.	30	
Alamogordo & Sacramento Mountain Ry.	29	
El Paso & Northw't'n Ry.—Capitan Branch	20	844
Denver & Rio Grande Ry.	166	
Tierra Amarilla Southern Ry.	17	183
Southern Pacific Railway		166
Colorado & Southern Ry.		76
		2,310


WELCOME TO CLOVIS
6
CLOVIS RACKET

EARLY SCENE OF MAIN STREET, CLOVIS

The Santa Fe Central Railway Company was incorporated December 7, 1900, for the purpose of building a road from Santa Fe southward. The line was completed through Kennedy, and Estancia to Torrance, a distance of 116 miles, on August 7, 1903. At the time extensions were under consideration to El Paso and Albuquerque. It was planned to build to Tijeras in Tijeras Canyon and from there through Hagan to San Felipe and from Tijeras to Albuquerque. The Albuquerque Eastern Railway was incorporated July 22, 1901, to construct these extensions. The road bed was built and ties and rails were laid on the eastern end of the line but the road was not completed.

The branch line of the Santa Fe Railroad from Hebron, fourteen miles south of Raton to Willow Mine was completed December 1, 1902. The line was nine miles in length.

The "Belen Cut-off" of the Santa Fe Railroad was constructed by the Eastern Railway Company of New Mexico, incorporated October 30, 1902. This road was built for the purpose of establishing a shorter route for the Santa Fe by connecting Amarillo, Texas with Belen, New Mexico. The line about 200 miles in length was completed in 1907. It crossed the Rock Island Railroad at Vaughn and the Santa Fe Central Railway at Willard. The line was extended west of the Rio Grande to the town of Rio Puerco where it connected with the Santa Fe Railroad.

The St. Louis, Rocky Mountain and Pacific Railway Company was incorporated in 1905 to build a railroad from Des Moines to Ute Park in Colfax County. This road connected with the Colorado and Southern Railway at Des Moines, crossed the Santa Fe Railroad at Otero and the Dawson Railway at Colfax. The length of the railway including a branch from Otero to Raton was about 100 miles. The line was completed in 1907.

The Rio Grande and Southwestern Railroad Company, which was incorporated February 23, 1903, built a branch of the Denver and Rio Grande from Lumberton to El Vado, a distance of thirty-three miles. The road was completed and in operation on June 30, 1904.

A narrow gauge railway was constructed in 1905 and 1906 from Silver City to the Pinos Altos mines. a distance of about eight miles.

The total number of railway companies incorporated in New Mexico during the Territorial period was more than 150. This large number was due in part to the organization of separate companies to construct parts of the same line and in part to the inability of companies organized to raise the money to construct the railroads planned. In some cases surveys were actually made, but in the majority of instances the companies did not reach that stage in their operation.

Mining in New Mexico rapidly became an important industry and source of wealth between 1879 and 1911. Before 1879 gold was the principal mineral. After 1879 silver was found in much larger quantities than gold. Copper mining became profitable with the development of railroad transportation and copper mining and railroads created a demand for coal. With the coming of the railroads New Mexico was prospected thoroughly and many new mining districts were formed.

The Elizabethtown district was continously worked during the period, the production varying from $10,000 to $200,000 in gold in a single year. The total amount taken out between 1879 and 1911 was more than $1,500,000. Only a small part of this amount was taken from lode mines. The principal production was from hydraulic mining and dredging. Hydraulic mining was carried on by James and Patrick Lynch following the death of their brother, Matthew Lynch in 1880. They controlled the ditch built earlier by the Moreno Water and Mining Company. Near Elizabethtown, Joseph Lowrey carried on placer mining for a number of years after 1880 by the hydraulic method. The Oro Dredging Company began operation, September 19, 1901, in the Moreno River near Elizabethtown. During 1903 and 1904 dredging was profitable, but in the following years the production did not cover operating expenses.

The mining districts of Taos County have never been important. The Red River District, which was prospected in 1869, had a boom in 1894. The La Belle District was boomed in 1905. The Copper Hill District failed to develop important mineral wealth in 1900 when the Copper Hill Mining Company attempted to work the claims. The Glen-Woody District also failed to develop when worked in 1902.

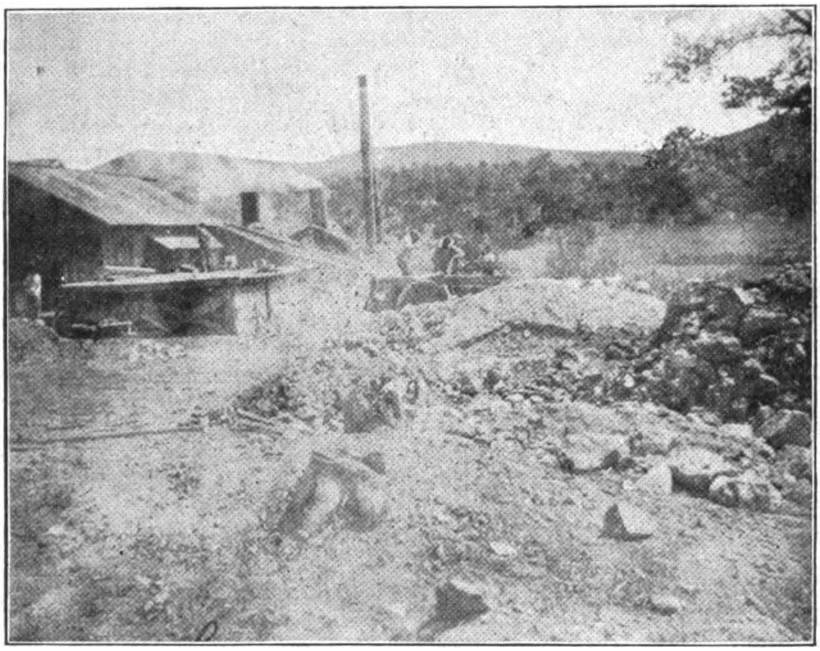
In Santa Fe County the Cerrillos District and the Old and New Placers continued to produce on a small scale. The Cerrillos District contained the Turquoise Mine and the Mina de la Tierra both of which were operated in Spanish times. There was also some copper mines in the San Pedro mountains. The turquoise mine of the Cerrillos District was purchased by the American Turquoise Company of New York and worked by them. In the period following 1879 silver-lead ores were taken from several of the mines in the Cerrillos District. A lead smelter was constructed at Cerrillos in 1902 but it was closed down in 1904. Attempts were made to operate some of the mines in 1909 but without success. The Ortiz mine near Dolores was located on the Ortiz Grant. The Ortiz Mining and Milling Company leased the mine from 1895 to 1905, built machinery for crushing the ore, but failed to develop a money-making proposition. The mine was not being worked in 1905. The Old Placers produced only a small amount of gold in this period. In 1900 a plant was built at Dolores by Thomas Edison for extraction of gold by means of static electricity, but the plan failed. The New Placers in the vicinity of Golden and San Pedro were not productive. The San Pedro copper mine which was operated by the Santa Fe Gold and Copper Company, between 1889 and 1892 produced several million pounds of copper. The company failed in 1893, but was re-organized in 1899 when a smelter was built near the mine. The operations did not pay and the mine was closed down in 1905. Mining was resumed in 1906 and in the following year more than one million pounds of copper were taken out. Due to the fall in the price of copper the mine was closed in 1908.

The Hopewell and Bromide mineral districts of Rio Arriba County were discovered in 1881. These mines have never produced heavily, but $175,000 was recovered from the placers of Eureka Gulch near Hopewell, in less than three years.

The Cochiti District in Sandoval County was prospected as early as 1881, but it was not until 1889 that prospecting was extensively carried on. A large number of claims had been located by 1894. The most important mines were the Albemarle group which were discovered in January of 1894. This property, owned by the Cochiti Gold Mining Company, was developed by means of a 300-ton plant which was operated for several years after 1899. This plant produced $667,500, but the company later failed. The total production of the district during the period of active mining between 1894 and 1904 amounted to about $1,000,000. The town of Bland came into existence with the mining boom and went out with the decline of the mines.

The principal producing regions of Lincoln County were the Nogal and the White Oaks Districts. The Rockford mine in the Nogal District was opened in the fall of 1882 and $8,000 was taken from the property in sixty days. The American mine was opened in the fall of 1884. Godfrey Hunter sold a two-thirds interest in the mine for $25,000 in 1885. The later production did not justify the price as the total amount taken from the mine to 1904 is estimated at $85,000. The Helen Rae mine was purchased by John Rae in 1882 who took out, in less than a year, about $15,000 in gold. After passing through several hands the Helen Rae mine became the property of the American Gold Mining Company. The estimate for production of the district to 1908 was $250,000. The district was characterized by bunches and pockets of rich ores. The White Oaks District produced more heavily than the Nogal District. The North Homestake mine in the spring of 1880 was found to be valuable, producing $35,000 in a few days. The total production for this mine to 1904 was placed at $400,000. The Old Abe mine was discovered during the winter of 1879, but not until November 1890 was the principal vein found. This mine is 1,375 feet deep and is one of the deepest dry mines known. Its production prior to 1904 was $875,000 in gold. Other mines, including the South Homestake with a production of $600,000, bring the total for the district to $2,860,000.

The mineral production for Socorro County during the period placed it well up toward the top among the mining counties. In 1911 Socorro County ranked first in tonnage and in total value of output. The Socorro Peak District was active in the early eighties. The principal mines were the Merritt and the Torrance. Silver was the principal metal found in the district. The total production to 1904 was estimated at $760,000. The Magdalena District included the Graphic and the Kelly mines, the production from which was estimated to be $5,800,000 before 1904. Gustav Billings, who purchased the Kelly mine for $45,000, built a smelting plant at Socorro in 1881 which continued to operate until 1903. The Graphic smelter at Magdalena was in operation from 1896 to 1902. The Graphic mine was purchased by the Sherwin-Williams Paint Company in 1903 and the Kelly mine was sold to the Tri-Bullion Mining and Smelting Company in 1904. The principal metal produced was zinc of which 50,000,000 pounds were mined between 1904 and 1908. Lead and copper have also been taken out of these mines. The Mogollon District in the southwestern part of Socorro County, during the eighties and the nineties produced gold and copper worth about $5,000,000. The principal mines developed in this region were the Cooney, Little Fanny, Last Chance, Confidence and the Maud S., each having produced about $1,000,000.



PINOS ALTOS SMELTER

The principal mining areas of Sierra County were the following districts: Hermosa, Lake Valley, Kingston and Las

Animas. The mines of the Hermosa District during the eighties and nineties produced silver worth $1,250,000. From Palomas Chief, the principal mine of the region, $500,000 in silver was taken out. The Lake Valley District was one of the heaviest silver producers in New Mexico. The Sierra Grande Mining Company, which controlled a large number of claims in the district in the early eighties, discovered the Bridal Chamber mine, which was a wonderful producer until worked out. The company continued its operations until August, 1893 when they were discontinued. The Bridal Chamber produced 2,500,000 ounces of silver and the Thirty Stope mine and other mines brought the total production up to 5,000,000 ounces. The Kingston District was developed in the early eighties and produced heavily for about fifteen years. The richest bodies of ore have been found near the surface. The total production prior to 1904 was estimated at $6,000,000 almost all of which was silver. The Las Animas, or Hillsboro District was developed in the early eighties. Gold in lodes as well as in placers along the gulches resulted in the production of $6,750,000 in the period before 1904. The total mineral production of Sierra County in 1911 dropped to $38,459.

SILVER CITY 1883.

Grant County had a larger number of producing districts during this period than any other county in New Mexico. The largest producers were the following districts: Pinos Altos, Chloride Flat, Central, Georgetown, Black Hawk, Burro Mountain, Lordsburg and Eureka. The Pinos Altos District was first developed on a large scale in the years following 1883. The Hearst Estate controlled a large part of the district between 1896 and 1903 when they sold to the Comanche Mining and Smelting Company. This company failed in 1908 which resulted in the closing of the smelter at Silver City. The total production prior to 1904 was $4,700,000, principally gold. The Pacific mine and the Mountain Key mine were prominent in the revival of the district in 1905, when $1,500,000 was the total taken out of these holdings. The Silver Cell mine discovered in 1891 has not been an extensive producer, the total amount to 1903 being $100,000. Chloride Flat District was an important producer of silver in the period between 1880 and 1893. The metal taken out amounted to about $4,000,000. The chief mines were the Bremen, Seventy-six and the Baltic.

The Central District, included the sub-districts of Santa Rita, Hanover and Fierro, of which the Santa Rita was the most important. The wealth in copper produced at Santa Rita in this period was not great, but all the development work was done that resulted in large production beginning in 1912. The property was purchased by J. Parker Whitney in 1880, who organized two companies in which he held a controlling interest; the Bonanza Development Company owning the land on the south side of the Santa Rita Creek; and the Santa Rita Copper and Iron Company, owning the property on the north side of the creek. The interests of these companies were leased to the Hearst Estate in 1897. Two years later the Amalgamated Copper Company bought out Whitney and the Hearst Estate and organized the Santa Rita Mining Company. It was at this time that the railroad was built from Hanover junction to the Santa Rita mines. The company lost interest in the enterprise and leased the property. A. C. Burrage, president of the Santa Rita Copper Company, through a report made for the General Electric Company, who had received permission to examine the property, was convinced that it was valuable. He succeeded in carrying on investigations putting down 500 drill holes to an average depth of 500 feet prior to 1911 which proved the existence of a large body of low grade copper ores that could be worked by steam shovels. In 1909 a 2,000 ton concentrating mill was built at Hurley which was later extended to a capacity of 5,000 tons. The Chino Copper Company was organized through the efforts of A. C. Burrage and the assistance of New York bankers, in June 1909. In 1911 the company had five steam shovels at work and large scale production was started during the latter part of the year. The total production of the Santa Rita Copper Mines prior to 1911 was estimated at 100,000,000 pounds. The Hanover sub-district produced considerable copper before 1911. In the period after 1879 it passed from T. B. Catron to C. F. Grayson and Company and in 1902 to the Phelps Dodge Company. Ore shipped to Douglas, Arizona by the company proved to be of very low grade. The Fierro subdistrict iron deposits were developed after 1891 by the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, but the production has never been large.

The Georgetown District belongs to the class that produced large sums of silver prior to 1892, but has been of little importance since. The principal mines were the Naiad Queen, Commercial and MacGregor owned by the Mimbres Mining Company. The Burro Mountain District was prospected in the early '80s, turquoise and copper being found there. Important discoveries of copper ore in 1902 resulted in a revival of interest in the region. Copper companies carrying on developments in the years prior to 1911 were the Burro Mountain Copper Company, the Chemung Copper Company and the Mangus Company. The principal mining property was that of the Burro Mountain Copper Company at Leopold which was purchased about 1908 by the Phelps Dodge and Company. The Black Hawk District had a silver boom in the middle eighties. The Black Hawk, the Hobson and the Alhambra mine were the chief producers. The total amount of silver taken from this district before 1893, when the mines were closed, was $1,000,000. The Lordsburg District, which during this period was a part of Grant County, included the Pyramid and Virginia Districts. Between 1882 and 1898 the mines produced probably $500,000 in silver. Renewed activity after 1905 resulted in an increase from $50,000 to $500,000 in annual output between 1908 and 1911. The Eureka District was discovered about 1880. The chief mines, the King, the American and the Hornet produced prior to 1905 about $500,000 in lead copper and silver. No later developments of importance took place in the district.

Luna County contains three important mining districts: Cooks Peak, Victorio and Tres Hermanas. Mining activities were carried on in 1911, but the returns amounted to only $5,458 almost all of which was from lead. The Cooks Peak District was developed in the early eighties having a total production to 1908 of about $3,000,000. The principal output came from the Desdemona, Graphic and Summit groups of claims, four-fifths of which was lead and one-fifth silver. The Victorio District was most active between 1880 and 1886 when the Jessie and the Chance mines were worked by the Hearst mining interests. Prior to 1904 lead and silver valued at $1,150,000 were mined in this district. The Tres Hermanas District, twenty-five miles south of Deming, has a production record to 1904 of about $200,000 principally from the lead mined. The Cincinnati claim, owned by the Golden Cross and Eagle Company in 1908, was credited with half of the output of the district.

The Organ Mountains District, fifteen miles northeast of Las Cruces was the only important mining region in Dona Ana

County. The Stephenson-Bennet mines were discovered in 1849. Hugh Stephenson sold the mine in 1858 to army officers at Fort Fillmore for $12,500. The production prior to 1880 amounted to a sum around $100,000. The total output for these mines is placed at $600,000 in lead and silver. Other properties developed were the Modoc, the Merrimac and the Excelsior. The district production before 1900 was estimated at $2,500,000 almost all of which came from lead and copper ores.

Otero County has two districts that produced in the period; Jarilla and Tularosa. The total production of these districts was small. The output in 1908 was $132,454, but in the following year it dropped to $1,098. The Jarilla District was developed after 1900 and in the first few years about $100,000 in gold and copper was mined. The Tularosa District began the production of copper in 1904. In 1911 the 125-ton concentration plant was not in operation. The output had been comparatively small.

The production of metals in New Mexico between 1881 and 1911 was as follows: gold, $16,307,374; silver, 27,523,853 ounces; copper, 95,365,790 pounds; lead, 179,890,156 pounds and zinc, 98,020,837 pounds.

Coal was the only non-metal mineral produced in large quantities in New Mexico during the period between 1879 to 1911. Turquoise, salt, gypsum, cement and lime were produced in small quantities. Mineral waters also had some importance. The coal regions of New Mexico were known as early as 1849, and locally used as early as 1861, but the amount mined did not become important until 1881 when 21,000 tons were mined. The following year the production jumped to 157,000 tons. It reached the 1,000,000 ton annual production mark in 1899 and in 1911 definitely passed the 3,000,000 ton amount as the annual production.

The Gallup coal fields in McKinley County were opened in the early eighties. Four companies were organized between 1883 and 1888, which were: The Gallup Coal Company, incorporated September 27, 1883 by McMillen, Kennedy and Weaver; Bell and Company, organized in 1885 by Joseph Bell and E. S. Stover, being rechartered June 6, 1887, as the Aztec Coal Company; the Black Diamond Mining Company with W. A. Maxwell as chief promoter; and the Caledonia Coal Company, incorporated December 20, 1888 by Neill B. Field, Alexander Bowie, Mariano S. Otero and M. D. Thatcher. These companies owned the following mines: Weaver, Caledonia, Otero, Thatcher and Catalpa. Several of these companies; the Gallup, the Aztec and the Black Diamond Company were combined in the Crescent Coal Company which was incorporated March 11, 1891 with a capital stock of $1,200,000. This company was the chief producer in the Gallup coal fields until 1900 when the property was sold to the American Fuel Company, a subsidiary of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, incorporated for $2,000,000 on April 20, 1900. This company bought the property of the Caledonia Coal Company in March, 1906. The Union Coal Company was organized May 2, 1900, the name of which was changed to the Gallup Fuel Company, November 25, 1905. The Clark Fuel Company, incorporated January 1, 1902, owned the coal land at Clarkville about six miles west of Gallup. This property was first developed beginning in 1897 as the W. A. Clark coal mine.

The coal mines of Colfax County were developed in the early part of the period by the Raton Coal and Coke Company, incorporated on August 29, 1881. This company operated the Blossburg mine near Raton, which produced 200,000 tons of coal in 1897. The ranch of John B. Dawson, 23,000 acres, which was purchased in part from L. B. Maxwell in 1869, contained 8,000 acres, partly coal lands which the Maxwell Land Grant Company claimed. The dispute was carried to the courts in 1892 and it was decided in favor of Dawson. These coal lands were not developed until the sale of the lands to the Dawson Fuel Company which was incorporated June 12, 1901 with a capital stock of $1,000,000. One month later the Dawson Railway Company was organized to build a railroad to connect these mines with the Rock Island Railroad at Tucumcari.

The Raton Coal and Coke Company increased its output by opening additional mines between 1897 and 1903. In the latter year the production of coal was doubled, the total amount mined being slightly more than that of the Gallup mines. In addition to the Blossburg mine, the company operated the following mines: Willow, Dutchman, Climax and Sugarite. Dawson mines Nos. one, two and three were opened between 1901 and 1903 by the Dawson Fuel Company.

In 1905 the Raton Coal and Coke Company and the Dawson Fuel Company went out of existence and new companies were organized. The Raton Coal and Coke Company was succeeded by the St. Louis, Rocky Mountain and Pacific Company, incorporated June 26, 1905 and the Dawson Fuel Company by the Stag Canyon Fuel Company which was incorporated on December 8, 1905. New mines were opened, railroad lines built and new equipment added which rapidly increased the amount of coal produced by these mines.

The coal mines of Santa Fe County were developed between 1893 and 1897 during which time the amount of coal mined increased from 20,000 tons to 200,000 tons. The production decreased to about 100,000 tons in 1902. The principal mines at that time were the Cerrillos Bituminous No. 27 mine, the Cerrillos Anthracite "A" 28 mine and the Cerrillos Anthracite "B" No. 33 mine. These mines were operated by the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company which began working in New Mexico on October 21, 1892. The Una del Gato coal mine and the Block coal mine were small producers in 1903 in Santa Fe County.

The coal mines of Rio Arriba, San Juan, Socorro and Lincoln Counties were not heavy producers during the period before 1911. The following table of the tons taken out shows the increase in production and the relative importance of the coal mines of the various counties:

Name of County	1893 Tons	1897 Tons	1901 Tons	1906 Tons	1911 Tons
McKinley	292,650	275,937	531,215	560,917	731,365
Colfax	244,955	203,537	332,046	1,292,241	2,297,611
Santa Fe	18,747	225,600	115,346	3,938	58,726
Rio Arriba	20,000	21,400	51,600	43,600	2,625
Socorro	49,527	1,240	14,116	-----	-----
Lincoln	-----	4,000	172,782	-----	1,658
San Juan	-----	1,825	425	-----	-----
Socorro, San Juan & Sandoval	-----	-----	-----	64,017	56,173

The total production in tons for the above years was as follows: 665,094 in 1893, 716,981 in 1897, 1,086,546 in 1901, 1,964,713 in 1906 and 3,148,158 in 1911. The total production of the coal mines of New Mexico from 1882 to 1911 was 34,250,976 tons.

The increase of population in New Mexico between 1880 and 1910 brought about by the building of the railroads amounted to 207,736. The largest increase in any other period of thirty years in the history of New Mexico was the period between 1850 and 1880, which was 58,018. In other words the increase of population was four times greater in the period from 1880 to 1910 than in the period from 1850 to 1880.

The population of the counties was as follows:

County	1910	1900	1890	1880
Bernalillo	23,606	28,630	20,913	17,225
San Miguel	22,930	22,053	24,204	20,638
Chaves	16,850	4,773	-----	-----
Rio Arriba	16,624	13,777	11,534	11,023
Colfax	16,460	10,150	7,974	3,398
Quay	14,912	-----	-----	-----
Grant	14,813	12,883	9,657	4,539
Santa Fe	14,770	14,658	13,562	10,867
Socorro	14,761	12,195	9,595	7,875
Valencia	13,320	13,895	13,876	13,095
McKinley	12,963	-----	-----	-----
Dona Ana	12,893	10,187	9,191	7,612
Mora	12,611	10,304	10,618	9,751
Eddy	12,400	3,229	-----	-----
Roosevelt	12,064	-----	-----	-----
Taos	12,008	10,889	9,868	11,029
Curry	11,443	-----	-----	-----
Union	11,404	4,528	-----	-----

Guadalupe	10,927	5,429	-----	-----
Torrance	10,119	-----	-----	-----
Sandoval	8,579	-----	-----	-----
San Juan	8,504	4,828	1,890	-----
Lincoln	7,822	4,953	7,081	2,513
Otero	7,069	4,791	-----	-----
Luna	3,913	-----	-----	-----
Sierra	3,536	3,158	3,630	-----
Total	327,301	195,310	153,593	119,565

The following list of towns includes the principal settlement of each county with its population as given in the census reports from 1880 to 1910. The population in many cases included a precinct due to the fact that some of the places were not incorporated. In other cases the limits of the incorporated towns did not include the entire settlement. This was true in the case of Las Vegas and East Las Vegas, and Old Albuquerque and Albuquerque. The census reports for towns in 1880 and preceding decades were very imperfect.

Town	County	1910	1900	1890	1880
Albuquerque	Bernalillo	14,277	8,848	6,160	2,665
Las Vegas	San Miguel	6,934	6,319	4,697	4,000
Roswell	Chaves	6,172	2,049	----	----
Santa Fe	Santa Fe	5,072	5,603	6,185	6,638
Raton	Colfax	4,539	3,540	1,255	----
Las Cruces	Dona Ana	3,836	2,906	2,330	----
Clovis	Curry	3,255	----	----	----
Silver City	Grant	3,217	2,735	2,102	1,800
Tucumcari	Quay	2,526	----	----	----
Clayton	Union	2,345	750	140	----
Gallup	McKinley	2,204	2,946	1,208	----
Alamogordo	Otero	1,948	1,524	518	----
Deming	Luna	1,864	1,341	1,183	----
Taos	Taos	1,830	1,644	978	----
Carlsbad	Eddy	1,736	963	278	----
Belen	Valencia	1,733	673	685	----
Socorro	Socorro	1,560	1,512	2,295	----
Portales	Roosevelt	1,292	----	----	----
Willard	Torrance	1,113	----	----	----
Carrizozo	Lincoln	1,082	----	----	----
Santa Rosa	Guadalupe	1,031	----	----	----
Tierra Amarilla	Rio Arriba	963	844	624	----
Bernalillo	Sandoval	907	766	924	1,223
Mora	Mora	817	741	688	915
Farmington	San Juan	785	548	336	----
Hillsboro	Sierra	400	557	621	----

CHAPTER XXV

IRRIGATION, AGRICULTURE, STOCK RAISING AND NATIONAL FORESTS, 1879 to 1911

Irrigation was practiced by the Indians of New Mexico for centuries before Coronado made New Mexico known to the European world. Community control of the water of tribal agricultural villages was an inevitable result of the Pueblo organization. Such a system was efficient because co-operation was necessary to build diversion dams and ditches. When the Spaniards came into the Rio Grande Valley they adopted the community methods of the Indians. The community dams and ditches of the Spanish settlements differed from Indians in that the European lacked the tribal organization. In the case of the Indian co-operation was natural while with the Spanish it was forced on them by conditions. During the Spanish period the total amount of land irrigated by the Indians and the Spaniards was small compared with the amount of land brought under irrigation since 1846. The total number of acres irrigated in 1860 was 28,000; in 1879, 90,000; and in 1911, 450,000. Thus the period between 1879 and 1911 showed an increase of 400 per cent in number of acres of irrigated land.

The following statistics show the increase in irrigation by decades to 1919:

Date of Beginning	No. of Enterprises	Irrigated 1919	Capital Invested	Main Dtch. Miles	No of Reservoirs	Capac. in in acre-feet-of Reservoirs
Before 1860	116	28,062	$ 268,876	316	10	12
1860-1869	103	26,597	384,754	289	3	277
1870-1879	176	33,720	482,843	388	12	98
1880-1889	276	71,909	2,568,298	546	28	146,847
1890-1899	221	55,223	1,262,916	494	14	922
1900-1909	482	99,160	5,814,747	758	117	106,967
1910-1919	716	150,639	6,615,183	1,118	125	2,703,885
Date of beginning unknown	301	73,067	811,795	560	19	1,710
Total	2,391	538,377	$18,210,412	4,469	328	2,960,718

By comparing the amount invested in irrigation before 1860 with that in each decade after that time it is possible to obtain a clearer idea of the increase. For example the capital invested between 1900 and 1909 is twenty-three times greater than the sum invested in irrigation before 1860.

The drainage basins contained irrigated lands in 1902 and 1919 as follows:

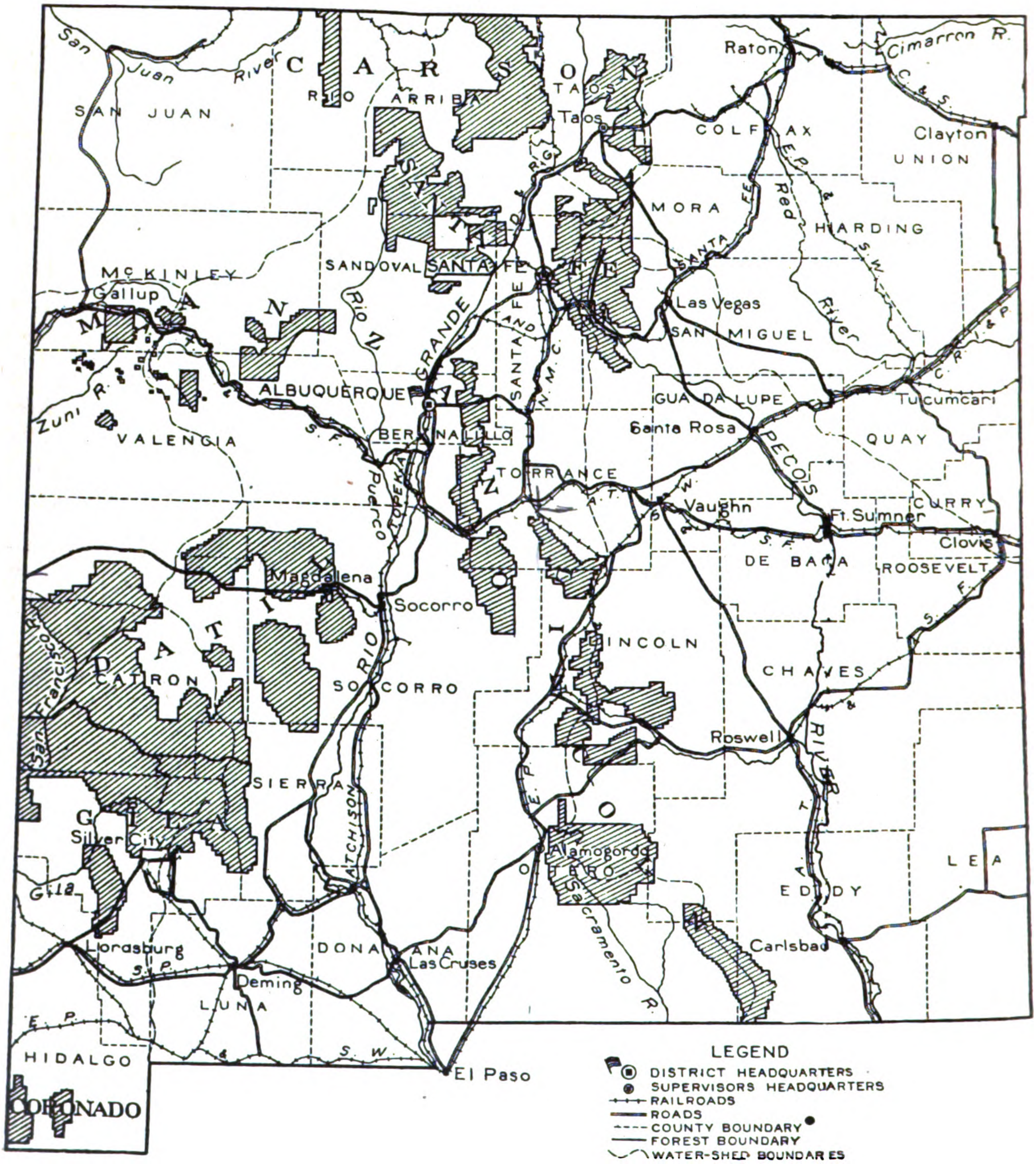
	Acres Irrigated	
Drainage Basins	1902	1919
Rio Grande and tributaries	96,836	250,206
Pecos River and tributaries	56,497	119,040
Canadian River and tributaries	56,203	90,185
San Juan River and tributaries	20,467	43,825
Gila River and tributaries	9,342	9,983
Cimarron River	6,554	5,757
Rio Mimbres	6,546	12,557
Rio Tularosa	1,568	4,547
Trinchera River	691	389
Fresno River	200	1,789
Other streams	41	90
Total	254,945	538,377

The Territorial Commission of Irrigation created in 1901 was authorized to select lands for reservoirs and to designate public lands for irrigation from the same. Eleven applications were received in 1901 from individuals and companies for 261,000 acres of the 500,000 donated for reservoirs and for 81,680 acres of the 100,000 for improvement of the Rio Grande.

In 1902 the commission determined to lease and sell some of the lands in order to have funds for investigation. The results of this policy to 1911 were as follows: The reservoir lands leased amounted to 253,622 acres and the amount sold to 14,972 acres. The income fund to 1911 was $73,023 and the permanent fund $3,287. The land grant for the improvement of the Rio Grande consisted of 100,000 acres. Of these lands 63,553 acres were leased and 5,874 acres sold prior to 1911. The income fund produced $21,802 and the permanent fund $17,624.

The Pecos Valley in southeastern New Mexico was a part of Lincoln County until 1889 when the two new counties of Chaves and Eddy were created. The organization of these new political units was caused by the increase of population in the vicinity of Roswell and Carlsbad which in turn was due to the development of irrigated farms. Southeastern New Mexico rapidly became more than a cattle country.

The beginning of irrigation in southeastern New Mexico was made by C. B. Eddy and C. W. Green. In the fall of 1887 Eddy started work on a ditch along the east side of the Pecos River eight miles above Carlsbad. Others became interested in the project and helped to organize the Pecos Irrigation and Investment Company, incorporated September 15, 1888, with a capital stock of $600,000. J. J. Hagerman became a heavy stockholder in the company in 1889. He succeeded in interesting


CARSON
SANTA FE
MANZANO
DATIL
GILA
LINCOLN
CORONADO
San Juan River
SAN JUAN
RIO ARRIBA
TAOS
Taos
Raton
Cimarron R.
C. & S.
COLFAX
Clayton
UNION
MORA
HARDING
Red River
McKINLEY
Gallup
SANDOVAL
SANTA FE
Rio Puerco
RIO GRANDE
Las Vegas
SAN MIGUEL
Zuni R.
ALBUQUERQUE
VALENCIA
BERNALILLO
GUADALUPE
Santa Rosa
Tucumcari
QUAY
PECOS
TORRANCE
Vaughn
Ft. Sumner
CURRY
Clovis
DE BACA
ROOSEVELT
Magdalena
Socorro
SOCORRO
CATRON
San Francisco R.
LINCOLN
CHAVES
Roswell
SIERRA
ATCHISON TOPEKA
Silver City
Alamogordo
OTERO
EDDY
LEA
Gila
Lordsburg
DONA ANA
Las Cruses
Carlsbad
Sacramento R.
Deming
LUNA
S. P.
E. P.
S. W.
HIDALGO
El Paso
LEGEND
DISTRICT HEADQUARTERS
SUPERVISORS HEADQUARTERS
RAILROADS
ROADS
COUNTY BOUNDARY
FOREST BOUNDARY
WATER-SHED BOUNDARIES

NATIONAL FORESTS OF NEW MEXICO, 1922

Swiss capitalists in the enterprise which resulted in the formation of a larger corporation called the Pecos Irrigation and Improvement Company, incorporated May 19, 1890, with a capital stock of $1,750,000. In the new organization J. J. Hagerman was president and C. B. Eddy general manager. This company in 1891 bought the rights and property of the First New Mexican Reservoir and Irrigation Company which had been organized January 18, 1889, by L. M. Long, Nathan Jaffa, W. S. Prager and others to develop the Rio Hondo Valley west of Roswell by means of storing the water. In this manner the two projects, the Rio Hondo and Carlsbad were brought under a single management.

The early period of development witnessed the building of the dam across the Pecos River five miles north of Carlsbad which created the Avalon Reservoir. The main canal carried the water from the east side of the dam southward for three miles where one branch known as the East Side Canal ran southeastward, while the other branch called the Southern Canal was carried by a flume to the west side. About twenty-five miles of canals were built prior to 1893. McMillan Reservoir was made during the winter of 1893-1894 about eight miles north of the Avalon Dam in order to increase the water supply.

Difficulties in financing irrigation between 1893 and 1904 finally resulted in the United States Reclamation Service taking over the Carlsbad project. The first heavy loss was experienced in August, 1893, when the Avalon Dam was washed out. The company succeeded in repairing it at a cost of $180,000, but the general hard times that followed found the corporation in financial troubles again. The Pecos Irrigation and Improvement Company was reorganized under the name of the Pecos Irrigation Company on September 19, 1900. The new organization also had trouble with the Avalon Dam, which was completely washed away on October 2, 1904. The Pecos Irrigation Company did not have the funds to replace the dam. For this reason the United States Reclamation Service was requested to take over the Carlsbad project. The first step was the making of surveys which were followed by the purchase of the canal system from the Pecos Irrigation Company, December 18, 1905, for $150,000. It was decided that $450,000 would be necessary to reconstruct the dams and ditches. The work was begun in the spring of 1906 and finished in July, 1909. The first part of the system to be rebuilt was the Black River Canal which was finished in May, 1906. This was followed by the reconstruction of the Avalon Dam completed in November, 1907. The McMillan Dam and the canals were rebuilt between 1907 and 1909. The ditch system was 145 miles in length; the capacity of Avalon Dam 7,000 acre feet and the McMillan Dam 40,000 acre feet. The area included in 1911 was 20,267 acres. The cost was $31 per acre.

The Hondo project, ten miles southwest of Roswell, the early history of which is given above, was made a Reclamation Service project September 6, 1904, and the Hondo Reservoir site was purchased December 3, 1904. The plans for the irrigation development included the diverting of the water from the Rio Hondo into a natural reservoir with a capacity of 40,000 acre feet of water, by an inlet canal one mile in length, the building of an outlet canal to carry the water back into the Rio Hondo and the construction of two diversion dams, the one two miles below the reservoir for the lands south of the river, the other four miles below the dam for the region north of the river. The Hondo Reservoir and inlet canal were completed in August, 1906, and the distributing canals in May, 1907. Very little water during the years 1907 to 1911 was available for storage and for this reason the lands under the project were not opened, the small amount of water being furnished on rental contracts.

The Rio Grande Project of the United States Reclamation Service which included the Elephant Butte Dam, the Leasburg Diversion Dam, and canal systems in Palomas and Mesilla Valley, New Mexico, and El Paso Valley, Texas, was the plan finally adopted to overcome the scarcity of water in these valleys and the adjacent country in Mexico. The early diversion dams and ditches along the Rio Grande between Rincon and El Paso were made at the beginning of the eighteenth century when the Spanish settlements were established. In the period of American occupation, 1846 to 1860, a system of ditches costing $43,725 was built a distance of seventy-five miles along both sides of the river from Rincon southward. In 1875 the Acequia de Colorado north of Rincon was completed at a cost of $7,500. Between 1880 and 1896 the water supply in the El Paso district decreased until there was a great scarcity due to the development of irrigation in the San Luis Valley of Colorado. The engineer for the International Boundary Commission reported on November 25, 1896, that the area irrigated in Colorado from the waters of the Rio Grande increased from 121,000 acres in 1880 to 318,000 acres in 1896. This resulted in the violation of the riparian rights in New Mexico, Texas and Mexico from which Mexico claimed damages in 1896 amounting to $35,685,000. The United States Attorney General Judson Harmon gave an opinion, December 12, 1895, to the State Department to the effect that international usage imposed no restriction on use of water within a country due to the effect of prior rights in a neighboring country. The International Joint Commission recommended, November 25, 1896, the building of a dam near El Paso and the prevention of the building of a dam or any other interference with the water supply. The dam was to be built by the United States and the water divided between the United States and Mexico, the latter to surrender her past claims for damages. The estimated cost of the dam was $2,000,000.

This dam project had been discussed for twenty years and a private corporation, the Rio Grande Dam and International Irrigation Company, had been organized August 29, 1892, but found the cost of construction prohibitive. The same parties September 9, 1893, organized the Rio Grande Dam and Irrigation Company with a capital stock of $5,000,000 for the purpose of building a dam at Elephant Butte, 112 miles above El Paso. Nathan Boyd became the chief promoter of the enterprise organizing a company in England to build the dam. The application of the Rio Grande Dam and Irrigation Company for the right to construct a dam at Elephant Butte was approved February 1, 1895 and work was started by the company.

The private project at Elephant Butte caused the failure of a dam treaty with Mexico on the basis of the recommendation of the International Boundary Commission. Anson Mills, the United States Boundary Commissioner, November 17, 1896, reported that the Elephant Butte Dam project would cut off almost all water of the Rio Grande above that point. The United States brought proceedings against the Rio Grande Dam and Irrigation Company in 1896 to prevent the construction of the Elephant Butte Dam. The chief contention of the government was that the Rio Grande was a navigable river and therefore could not be obstructed. After a series of trials in the district court, the Territorial and United Supreme courts, the last one began April 7, 1903, in the court of the Third Judicial District of New Mexico. The complaint of the United States in this case included a new paragraph in which it was held that the Rio Grande Dam and Irrigation Company had obtained their rights under the Act of Congress March 3, 1891, which required the completion of the dam within five years after beginning the work and that the company had failed to fulfill this provision. The Territorial District Court held that the Rio Grande Dam and Irrigation Company had forfeited their rights and this decision was confirmed by the Territorial Supreme Court March 2, 1906.

While the suits above referred to were in progress a bill to build the government dam at El Paso was introduced, March 19, 1900, into the Congress of the United States. The objections raised by New Mexico helped to defeat the bill. In June, 1904, John Hay proposed that the Reclamation Service, which had been created June 17, 1902, might solve the problem by building a dam at Elephant Butte. B. M. Hall of the Reclamation service made a report November 18, 1904, recommending the building of the Elephant Butte Dam. The Reclamation Service Act was extended so as to include the El Paso Valley of Texas and a treaty was made with Mexico May 21, 1906. The way was thus cleared for a solution of the Mexican water right dispute and the shortage of water in the El Paso district in New Mexico and Texas. The treaty with Mexico provided that after the completion of the Elephant Butte Dam the United States should deliver annually 60,000 acre feet of water at the head of the Mexican canal above Juarez. The United States agreed to bear the entire expense of storing, delivering and measuring the water. The treaty expressly provided that the above agreement should not be construed to be the recognition upon the part of the United States of the right of Mexico to the water.

The United States made contracts with the El Paso Valley Water Users' Association of Texas and the Elephant Butte Water Users' Association of New Mexico with the understanding that the construction and maintenance cost for ten years would not be more than $40 per acre. This amount was used as the basis for determining the part the United States should pay to indemnify Mexico according to the treaty. The appropriation of $1,000,000 to carry out the provisions of the treaty with Mexico was made by Congress March 4, 1907. The remainder of the cost was to be supplied from the irrigation fund. Delay followed, due to the large cost of the project and possibly other causes until the summer of 1910 when Senator Elihu Root insisted upon the carrying out of the treaty. On June 1, 1910 R. A. Ballinger, Secretary of the Interior, issued an order for the completion by July, 1911, of all preliminary work which was necessary before the foundation could be laid for the Elephant Butte Dam.

The estimated cost of the Rio Grande Project plus maintenance for a period of ten years was as follows:

Elephant Butte Dam	$5,115,000
Leasburg Diversion Dam, etc.	107,000
East Side Canal System	618,000
West Side Canal System	153,000
Penasco Rock Diversion Dam and Canals	300,000
Right of Way	175,000
Maintenance for Ten Years	750,000
Total	$7,218,000

The Rio Grande Project was planned to irrigate 110,000 acres in New Mexico, 45,000 acres in Texas and 25,000 in Mexico.

The Leasburg Diversion Dam which formed the heading for the Mesilla Valley canal was constructed as a separate piece of work although it was planned as a part of the whole Rio Grande Project. The allotment of funds for the dam was approved by the Secretary of the Interior December 2, 1905, and the contracts for building were let by the Reclamation Service in November of 1906. The dam was completed February 14, 1908, at a cost of $190,000.

The Elephant Butte Dam was started in the latter part of 1911. All of the work up to that time was preliminary to the construction of the dam which included engineering investigations, the building of a railroad from Engle to the site of Elephant Butte, which was completed March 2, 1911, and the construction of shops, storehouses, power plant, residences and a concrete flume to carry the water during the placing of the foundation of the dam. The plans called for a dam 236 feet in height with a crest length of 1,200 feet. The reservoir covered 41,280 acres and was designed for a capacity of 2,760,000 acre feet of water.

The Reclamation Service examined three other regions prior to 1911 known as the Urton Lake, Las Vegas and La Plata projects. Urton Lake south of Fort Sumner in the Pecos Valley, according to plans was to be made a storage reservoir with a capacity of 190,000 acre feet to irrigate 60,000 acres. The Las Vegas Project proposed a storage dam to hold waters of the Gallinas and Sapello rivers and furnish water for 10,000 acres in the vicinity of Las Vegas. The La Plata Valley Project was reported in 1905. Two plans were suggested; the one of diverting the water from Las Animas Valley which proved impracticable, the other of building storage dams in La Plata Valley. Various sites were considered, but none was very favorable. These projects did not pass the investigation stage during the Territorial period.

The irrigation development of Colfax County in northeastern New Mexico was begun by the Maxwell Land Grant Company in 1887 when the surveys were made along the Cimarron and Vermejo Rivers, western branches of the Canadian. The construction of two projects was begun in 1888 and completed in 1893. The Springer Reservoir on the Cimarron was the main storage area with a capacity of 5,000 acre feet of water. There were four smaller reservoirs, ten miles of main ditches and forty miles of laterals. It was estimated that 22,000 acres could be irrigated by these reservoirs and ditches. The Springer Ditch Company was organized February 15, 1908, with 7,500 acres of irrigated lands. The Vermejo project consisted of ten lake basins with a storage capacity of 10,300 acre feet of water, twelve miles of main canal and forty-five miles of small ditches. This system was expected to furnish water for 30,000 acres. The Maxwell Irrigated Land Company controlling 23,000 acres of irrigated lands was incorporated July 23, 1908.

Other companies in Colfax County, including the amount of land controlled and the date of incorporation, were: Jaritas Ditch and Reservoir Company, 4,000 acres, March 8, 1901; Farmers' Development Company, 10,000 acres, March 28, 1907; Palo Blanco Land and Irrigation Company, 40,000 acres, July 19, 1907; French Land and Irrigating Company, 40,000 acres, October 21, 1907; and Lake Charette Reservoir and Ditch Company, 12,000 acres, April 3, 1908.

The development of irrigation in San Juan County was along the San Juan, La Plata and Las Animas rivers. The earliest project built by a corporation was that of Las Animas, La Plata and San Juan Irrigating Canal Company, organized May 9, 1887, with a capital stock of $150,000. The project was constructed to irrigate 10,000 acres lying north of Farmington.

Other companies that were organized in the effort to extend the irrigated areas in San Juan County were: Las Animas High Line Ditch Company, incorporated April 14, 1893; Las Animas River Land and Irrigation Company organized February 28, 1898; the New Eden Ditch and Land Company, incorporated April 3, 1906; the Bloomfield Ditch and Irrigation Company, created April 5, 1906; and the Farmers' Mutual Ditch Company organized May 4, 1909.

The counties having more than 2,000 acres of irrigated lands in 1919 were the following:

County Drainage Basin	Rank 1909	No. of Acres Irrigated 1909	1919	Rank 1919
Chaves—Pecos River	1	56,064	42,259	7
Eddy—Pecos River	2	47,141	51,353	4
Rio Arriba—Rio Grande	3	45,673	46,036	5
Taos—Rio Grande	4	41,486	59,607	2
Dona Ana—Rio Grande	5	32,232	52,265	3
Colfax—Canadian River	6	30,756	66,187	1
Valencia—Rio Grande	7	30,302	19,241	9
San Juan—San Juan River	8	29,520	42,470	6
Mora—Canadian River	9	19,089	17,833	10
Sandoval —Rio Grande	10	18,269	23,214	8
Santa Fe—Rio Grande	11	16,180	10,582	15
Grant—Gila River	12	14,834	6,987	18
Bernalillo—Rio Grande	13	14,832	14,536	12
San Miguel—Pecos & Can.	14	14,318	16,565	11
Socorro—Rio Grande	15	14,289	11,110	14
Lincoln—Pecos	16	7,355	6,128	21
Otero—Rio Grande	17	6,378	7,556	17
Union—Canadian	18	6,315	6,774	20
Luna—Rio Grande	19	5,347	11,323	13
Guadalupe—Pecos	20	4,395	3,206	22
Sierra—Rio Grande	21	3,637	8,491	16
McKinley—Rio Grande	22	2,564	6,919	19
De Baca—Pecos	--	-----	3,035	23
Hidalgo—Gila	--	-----	2,840	24

The livestock industry between 1879 and 1911 increased in importance the number of sheep approaching the five million mark in 1900 and the number of cattle passing the one million mark in 1910. The prosperity of many communities in New Mexico depended on good prices for cattle and sheep in the markets, and sufficient rain to keep the range in good condition. The following table shows that New Mexico between 1890 and 1910 had about four times as many sheep as cattle which means that about the same amount of range was occupied by each since it requires approximately four times as much land to support a head of cattle as it does for a head of sheep. It also shows that the number of cattle and sheep increased between 1890 and 1900, but have not increased since that time, due in part to agricultural development.

	No. of Cattle	No. of Sheep	Pounds of Wool	Livestock Value
1880	347,936	3,938,831	4,019,188	$ 5,010,800
1890	577,511	1,248,970	4,074,530	15,811,430
1900	996,790	4,902,549	15,209,199	31,727,400
1910	1,095,335	3,759,034	16,994,017	$43,626,418

Agriculture made a very marked increase in the period between 1890 and 1900, and even a larger gain in the following decade, when the livestock industry seemed to be at a standstill. This steady increase of agriculture was due to many causes among which may be mentioned, the investment of capital in irrigation projects, the building of railroads into undeveloped regions and the cultivation of crops by the dry farming method.

	Acres in farms	Value of farms	Value of crops
1880	631,131	$ 5,514,399	$1,897,974
1890	787,882	8,140,800	7,784,820
1900	5,130,878	20,888,814	3,064,567
1910	11,270,021	111,830,909	8,619,802

According to the following table barley and wheat show a smaller production in 1910 than in 1880. The other products listed, hay, corn and oats, show increases. Cotton was a new product for New Mexico in 1910. Cultivation of this product has since become more important.

	Hay		Corn		Wheat	
	Acres	Tons	Acres	Bushels	Acres	Bushels
1880	12,351	11,025	41,449	633,786	51,230	706,641
1890	26,375	47,253	28,539	583,489	21,853	343,484
1900	87,358	195,324	41,345	677,305	37,907	603,303
1910	370,596	433,504	85,999	1,164,970	32,341	499,799

	Oats		Barley		Cotton	
	Acres	Bushels	Acres	Bushels	Acres	Bales
1880	9,237	156,527	2,548	50,053	---	---
1890	9,314	193,832	1,484	35,024	---	---
1900	15,848	342,777	1,110	24,107	---	---
1910	33,707	720,560	2,131	43,490	790	206

Forest reserves, after 1907 called national forests, were first created in New Mexico by the Federal government in 1892. The majority of the land included was public domain which made it possible for the Federal government to create these reserves. The purpose was to preserve timbered areas by proper cutting and prevention of fires, to regulate the use of the forest areas by cattle and sheep, to improve the forests as recreational centers and to protect water sheds. The policy found strong opponents in the western states during the period from 1892 to 1911. It was held that the grazing fees were an unnecessary burden on the livestock industry and that in regions like New Mexico the Federal government had reserved a large part of the most valuable land and thereby had taken from the Territory an important source of income.

The Pecos River Forest was established by Presidential proclamation January 11, 1892, and enlarged in the same manner May 27, 1898, to protect the headwaters of the Pecos and to preserve the timber. The area of the reserve in 1901 was 431,040 acres. The Gila River Forest Reserve consisting of 3,270,000 acres was created by a proclamation of the President of the United States on March 2, 1899. According to the 1904 report the reserve consisted of 2,327,040 acres. The Lincoln Forest Reserve was established July 26, 1902, having an approximate area of 500,000 acres. On September 1, 1903, the Commissioner of Public Lands ordered the withdrawal from entry of the Jemez Mountain area. The fourth forest reserve to be established in New Mexico, was set aside prior to September 1, 1905. Lands were withdrawn in 1905 to provide for a fifth reserve located south of the Gila Reserve which was to be known as the Burro Mountain Reserve. The area of the Gila and the Pecos Reserves were enlarged during the year. The area in New Mexico included in forest reserves at the close of 1905 was given in round numbers as 6,000,000 acres.

Between 1905 and 1907 the forest area of New Mexico controlled by the United States was almost doubled. The new name, national forests, came into use in 1907. The Carson, the Manzano, the Zuñi, the Alamo and the Chiricahua were the national forests created at this time. Parts of these national forests were restored to the public domain on May 9, 1910. The President of the United States issued a proclamation restoring 228,156 acres of the Gila National Forest to the public domain and on October 20, 1910, the Alamo National Forest was decreased to the amount of 245,450 acres.

The total area of the National Forests of New Mexico in 1911 at the end of the Territorial period was 10,923,031 acres. There were no National Forests in eastern New Mexico. Central and western New Mexico contain approximately 50,000,000 acres, and of this region one-fifth was included within the National Forests.

The National Forests of New Mexico on March 1, 1911, arranged according to size were as follows:

Name Headquarters	Acres
Datil—Magdalena	2,957,801
Gila—Silver City	1,575,737
Carson—Antonito, Colo.	1,500,713
Alamo—Cloudcroft	1,290,700
Jemez—Santa Fe	842,229
Pecos—Santa Fe	720,580

Zuñi—Albuquerque	702,150
Lincoln—Capitan	639,180
Manzano—Albuquerque	566,021
Chiricahua—Portal, Ariz.	127,920

The first provision for returning to local communities some of the profits of the National Forests was passed by Congress June 30, 1906. This act provided that ten per cent of the receipts of each forest should be paid to the counties in proportion to the amount of the forest lands included in the counties. This law had been in force two years when Congress increased the amount of money to be paid the counties from ten to twenty-five per cent. In the act of Congress granting lands to New Mexico, June 20, 1910, for the public schools, it was provided that school land sections within the National Forests should remain a part of the same and that a proportional part of the receipts of the forests should be paid to the State. New Mexico's share under this law was fixed at seven per cent. The total amount received by New Mexico from the National Forests from 1906 to 1911 was $134,304.

CHAPTER XXVI

SPANISH AND MEXICAN LAND GRANTS, 1860-1911

The Spanish and Mexican land grants of New Mexico have constituted one of the most difficult land problems in the history of New Mexico. From the standpoint of time they may be divided into two classes; the Spanish grants made between 1693 and 1821, and the Mexican grants made between 1821 and 1846. A few grants were made after that date in the Mesilla Valley, which Mexico claimed until the dispute was settled by the Gadsden Treaty. The grants may be divided into three classes; those made to settlements, those of small size claimed by individuals, and those of large size granted to individuals for the purpose of encouraging settlement. Each group of claimants had rights in land guaranteed to them by the Treaty of Guadalupe at the end of the Mexican war. If there had been, in each case, documents that defined definitely the rights of parties, and maps showing the boundaries of the grants, the problem would not have been a serious one, but such was not the case. The documents that did exist were often very indefinite concerning boundary lines and the amount of land contained in the grants. Some of the papers as in the Peralta Reavis suit and in the Pueblo grants were forgeries. In the majority of the small claims the holder based his right on occupancy by his ancestors. The complications were many, the first method adopted by the United States for the settling of titles resulted in confirming by Congress of a number of large grants in 1860. Opposition to confirmation of further areas resulted in very few titles being settled during the following thirty years. The establishment of the United States Court of Private Land Claims, March 3, 1891, was the beginning of a policy of settling titles by means of court proceedings.

When the office of United States surveyor general for New Mexico was created in 1854, among the duties of this officer was the investigation of Spanish and Mexican grants and the recommendation to Congress for confirmation of those claims which he found to be based on sound proof. In addition to the investigation of the land rights of the Pueblo Indians a number of other grants were approved by the surveyor general and confirmed by Congress between 1858 and 1860. The following grants belong to this class:

Name of Grant and County	Acres	Date Granted	Date Confirmed
Beaubien and Miranda (Maxwell)—Colfax	1,470,000	1841	1860
Town of Mora—Mora	701,748	1835	1860
San Miguel	121,312	----	----
Colfax	4,829	----	----
Tierra Amarilla—Rio Arriba	525,515	1832	1860
Pedro Armendariz—Socorro	207,510	1820	1860
Sierra	240,024	----	----
Town of Las Vegas—San Miguel	431,653	1835	1860
Anton Chico—Guadalupe	268,537	1822	1860
San Miguel	110,000	----	----
Preston Beck, Jr.—Guadalupe	190,790	1823	1860
San Miguel	127,900	----	----
Sangre de Cristo—Taos	228,636	1843	1860
Town of Belen—Socorro	121,633	1740	1858
Valencia	59,000	----	----
Casa Colorado—Socorro	72,779	1823	1858
Valencia	59,000	----	----
Town of Tomé—Valencia	121,594	1739	1858
Cañon de San Diego—Sandoval	116,286	1798	1860
Baca Location No. 2—San Miguel	99,298	1835	1860
Baca Location No. 1—Sandoval	88,504	1835	1860
Rio Arriba	1,920	----	----
San Cristobal—Santa Fe	81,031	1827	1860
Bosque del Apache—Socorro	60,117	1845	1860
Sebastian Martín—Rio Arriba	47,637	1751	1860
Taos	3,750	----	----
Town Chililí—Bernalillo	27,172	1841	1858
Torrance	14,309	----	----
Town of Tecolote—San Miguel	41,123	1824	1858
Ramon Vigil—Sanvodal	16,780	1746	1860
Santa Fe	14,429	----	----
Las Trampas—Rio Arriba	14,965	1751	1860
Taos	14,065	----	----
John Scolly—Mora	13,007	1846	1860
San Miguel	8,694	----	----
San Pedro—Bernalillo	13,494	1839	1860
Santa Fe	6,700	----	----
Perea, of Los Esteros—Guadulupe	17,712	1825	1860
Hacienda del Agua Negra—Guadalupe	17,361	1824	1860
Town of Manzano—Torrance	17,360	1829	1860
Nuestra Señora de la Luz—Santa Fe	16,546	1820	1860
Town of Torreon—Torrance	14,146	1841	1860
Brazito—Dona Ana	14,808	1823	1860
Town of Tejon—Sandoval	12,801	1840	1860

Town of San Ysidro—Sandoval	11,476	1786	1860
Los Trigos—San Miguel	7,342	1815	1860
Town of Tajique—Torrance	7,185	1834	1860
Town of Chamita—Rio Arriba	1,636	1724	1860
Cañon de Pecos—San Miguel	1,242	1815	1860
Vicente Duran de Armijo—Santa Fe	57	1806	1860

A small number of grants were confirmed by Congress between 1861 and 1869, but none in the seventies and the eighties, although the surveyor general approved a large number of grants and annually recommended adoption of a method of settling claims. The following grants were confirmed by Congress between 1861 and 1869:

Name and County	Acres	Date Granted	Date Confirmed
Pablo Montoya—San Miguel	655,468	1824	1869
Cebolleta—Valencia	123,567	1807	1869
McKinley	48,000	----	----
Sandoval	28,000	----	----
Gallinas—San Miguel	163,921	1819	1869
Ojo del Espiritú Santo—Sandoval	113,141	1815	1869
Ortiz Mine—Santa Fe	69,458	1833	1861
Los Luceros—Taos	56,428	1743	1869
Cañon del Agua—Santa Fe	341	1844	1866

The agitation for the settlement of claims during the seventies and the eighties finally brought about the passage of an act by Congress March 3, 1891, which created a special United States Court for the final adjustment of all Spanish and Mexican land claims existing in New Mexico, Colorado and Arizona. This act provided for the creation of a court of five judges, for the appointment of a United States attorney, and other officers; with authority to hear petitions filed with the court setting forth the land claims of parties. Upon the rendering of a decision by the court it became the duty of the Commissioner of the General Land Office to have a survey made of the lands at the expense of the Government. This survey was then returned to the Court of Private Land claims for its approval. No claims were to be allowed except those having titles fully and regularly derived from Spain and Mexico. Appeals were allowed to the United States Supreme Court. The act also provided that when the township surveys were made the surveyors should mark all lands claimed in lots less than 160 acres and that the surveys with the proof of possession for the twenty years preceding the survey should be submitted to the Commissioner of the General Land Office who, after investigating and finding it a just one, should issue a patent to the lands. All claims of the above class had to be filed, as provided in the act, with the surveyor general of the Territory within two years following March 3, 1891. All claims larger than 160 acres had to be filed in the form of a petition to the Court of Private Land Claims not later than March 3, 1893. The court was to complete its work December 31, 1895.

Amendments were made to the act by Congress from time to time during the thirteen years of its existence. The life of the court was extended first to December 31, 1897, then to March 4, 1899, again to June 30, 1900, then to June 30, 1902, and finally to June 30, 1904. The time limit for the filing of claims less than 160 acres was extended to December 1, 1894. This time limit was extended to March 4, 1901. Other amendments related to surveying of grants and the rights of non-residents.

The President of the United States appointed the following officials for the court: Chief Justice Joseph R. Reed of Iowa, who had served for many years on the bench of that state; Justice Thomas C. Fuller of North Carolina, a well qualified attorney; Judge William W. Murray of Tennessee, who had been a United States district attorney for a number of years; Judge Henry C. Sluss of Kansas, who had served on the bench of that state; and Judge Wilbur F. Stone, who was one of the judges of the Supreme Court of Colorado at the time of its creation.

The Court of Private Land Claims began work in Denver on July 1, 1891, and shortly thereafter transferred the seat of the court to Santa Fe, New Mexico. It was not until June 30, 1904, that all of the cases brought before the court, numbering 301, had been completed. The land claims amounted to 34,653,340 acres. More than two-thirds of the petitions presented to the court were entirely rejected while many of those confirmed were reduced in size. The confirmed claims numbered seventy-five and consisted of 1,934,986 acres.

Name and County	Acres	Date Granted	Date Confirmed
Town of Sevilleta—Socorro	272,193	1819	1902
Juan José Lobato—Rio Arriba	205,615	----	1894
Rancho de Rio Grande—Taos	91,813	1795	1892
Town of Alameda—Sandoval	63,746	1710	1893
Bernalillo	25,600	----	----
Cañada de Los Apaches—Valencia	46,249	1769	1901
Bernalillo	40,000	----	----
Town of Atrisco—Bernalillo	67,491	1768	1894
Caja del Rio—Santa Fe	52,819	1742	1893
Sandoval	14,029	----	----
Lucero de Godoy—Taos	61,605	1716	1893
La Majada—Sandoval	32,404	----	1894
Santa Fe	22,000	----	----
Lo de Padilla—Valencia	34,231	----	1902
Torrance	16,409	----	----
Bernalillo	1,300	----	----
Piedra Lumbre—Rio Arriba	49,749	1766	1894

Ignacio Chaves McKinley	23,629	1768	1898
Sandoval	23,629	----	----
Nicolas Duran de Chaves—Valencia	46,655	----	1893
Bernabe Montano—Sandoval	30,000	----	1892
Bernalillo	14,070	----	----
Nuestra Señora de la Luz—Sandoval	39,184	----	1895
San Clemente—Valencia	37,099	1716	1899
Polvadera—Rio Arriba	35,761	1766	1900
Dona Ana Bend Colony—Dona Ana	35,399	1839	1902
Elena Gallegos—Bernalillo	35,084	----	1899
Santa Barbara—Taos	30,638	1796	1894
Pajarito—Bernalillo	28,724	----	1899
Bartolomé Fernandez—McKinley	25,000	----	1894
Antonio Guttierez—Valencia	21,676	----	1902
Bernalillo	960	----	----
Cristóbal de la Serna—Taos	22,232	1710	1892
Mesilla Civil County—Dona Ana	21,628	1853	1902
Arroyo Hondo—Taos	20,629	1815	1901
Cañada de Cochiti—Sandoval	19,112	----	1901
Town of Socorro—Socorro	17,371	----	1892
Laguna Pueblo—Valencia	17,328	----	1899
Town of Cubero—Valencia	16,490	1834	1898
Gijosa—Taos	16,240	1715	1903
Ojo de Borrego—Sandoval	16,079	1768	1898
Refugio Colony—Dona Ana	15,000	1852	1901
Nuestra Señora de Rosario—Rio Arriba	14,768	----	1893
Sebastian de Vargas—Santa Fe	13,434	----	1899
Town of Abiquiu—Rio Arriba	13,000	1754	1894
Cañada de los Alamos—Santa Fe	12,068	1785	1893
Agua Salada—Sandoval	10,693	1769	1900
Juan de Gabaldon—Santa Fe	10,690	1752	1904
Santo Tomas de Iturbide—Dona Ana	9,622	1853	1903
Plaza Blanca—Rio Arriba	8,955	1739	1894
Las Truchas—Rio Arriba	8,253	1754	1892
Black Mesa—Rio Arriba	8,000	----	1894
Plaza Colorado—Rio Arriba	7,577	1739	1894
Town of Jacona—Santa Fe	6,952	1702	1899
San Miguel del Bado—San Miguel	5,024	1794	1901
El Ranchito—Bernalillo	4,945	----	1901
San Antonio de las Huertas—Sandoval	4,763	1767	1902
Santa Cruz—Santa Fe	4,567	----	1902
Bartolomé Sanchez—Rio Arriba	4,469	----	1902
Ojo de San José—Sandoval	4,340	1768	1902
Felipe Tafoya—McKinley	4,340	1767	1900
San Mateo Hot Springs—Valencia	4,018	1754	1901
McKinley	322	----	----

Cañada de Los Alamos—Sandoval	4,034	1768	1898
Bernalillo	72	----	----
Joaquin de Mestas—Sandoval	3,632	----	1902
José Manuel S. Baca—Dona Ana	3,530	----	1902
Town of Bernalillo—Sandoval	3,404	1701	1899
Cieneguilla—Santa Fe	3,202	1693	1899
M. and S. Montoya—Sandoval	2,963	1766	1900
Ojo Caliente—Rio Arriba	1,604	1793	1894
Taos	640	----	----
Santo Domingo de Cundiyo—Santa Fe	2,137	----	1902
Cañon de Carnue—Bernalillo	2,000	1819	1902
Santa Rosa de Cubero—Sandoval	1,945	----	1901
San Marcos Pueblo—Santa Fe	1,895	----	1893
Don Fernando de Taos—Taos	1,817	1799	1902
Angostura—Sandoval	1,579	1745	1901
Los Cerrillos—Santa Fe	1,478	1788	1894
Juan Bautista Valdez—Rio Arriba	1,458	1814	1900
Cañon de Chama—Rio Arriba	1,422	1806	1903
Petaca—Rio Arriba	1,392	1836	1902
Rio Tesuque—Santa Fe	1,100	----	1897
Santo Domingo Pueblo—Sandoval	1,070	----	1902
Sitio de los Cerrillos—Santa Fe	572	----	1894
Cuyamungue—Santa Fe	604	1731	1902
Pacheco—Santa Fe	581	----	1893
Sitio de los Cerrillos—Santa Fe	572	----	1894
Domingo Valdez—Santa Fe	500	----	1893
Cañada de Santa Clara—Rio Arriba	490	----	1901
Talaya Hill—Santa Fe	319	1731	1900
Antonio de Abeita—Rio Arriba	300	----	1894
Alamitos—Santa Fe	297	1840	1902
Santiago Ramirez—Santa Fe	272	1744	1901
Town of Galisteo—Santa Fe	260	1814	1899
Salvador Gonzales—Santa Fe	202	----	1899
José García—Sandoval	109	----	1897

The large number of claims which were rejected by the Court of Private Land Claims was due to imperfect titles rather than to fraudulent documents. Two groups of forged papers were discovered; one group related to grants made to Pueblo Indians, which were patented by the United States in 1860, and the other to the so-called Peralta grant, which was the largest claim brought before the court, amounting to 12,467,456 acres. The Pueblo Indian grants did not come within the jurisdiction of the court except in the case of the Laguna Pueblo. It was shown that the grant to the Pueblo made in 1689 pre-dated the founding of the Indian village about ten years. It was further demonstrated that the documents setting forth the lands given to the Pueblos contained sentences taken from a book published in 1832. The Peralta grant was a claim made by James Addison

Reavis of Missouri, who called himself Peralta-Reavis. In the petition presented to the Court of Private Land Claims it was stated that the wife of James Addison Reavis was the granddaughter of Don Miguel de Peralta de la Cordoba, who in 1742 had been sent by Philip V to investigate the northern provinces of New Spain. For his services the King had granted him the barony of Arizona, consisting of 300 square leagues in the Gila Valley lying between Phoenix, Arizona and Silver City, New Mexico. The agents of the United States attorney discovered that documents had been altered in the Spanish archives in Seville and Guadalajara, that the supposed *cédula* appointing Peralta was in fact the *cédula* appointing Count Fuenclara to the office of viceroy and that Mrs. Reavis was the daughter of a man named Treadway by an Indian woman. When the claim was considered in the Court of Private Land Claims in June, 1895, the United States Attorney had proof of the fraudulent nature of the claim and the court so declared it. James Addison Reavis was later tried in the New Mexico District Court at Santa Fe, convicted for attempting to defraud the Government and sentenced to prison.

Some of the claims presented to the Court of Private Land Claims were found to have been greatly extended by English and American owners. This was possible on account of the indefinite boundaries that were commonly found in the original grants. The Cañada de Los Alamos grant was filed with a claim for 148,000 acres. The court confirmed 12,068 acres. The Petaca grant owned by Chicago lumber interests was claimed to include 384,000 acres. The final award of the court fixed the area of the grant at 1,392 acres. An English cattle firm, The Rio Arriba Land and Cattle Company, purchased the Cañon de Chama grant and presented to the court a claim for 472,737 acres. The court decided that the original grant included only a small area of about 1,422 acres in the canyon. The Ignacio Chaves grant in Sandoval and McKinley counties was reduced by the court from 234,156 acres to 47,258 acres. The Cañada de Cochiti grant in Sandoval County included, according to the owners, J, Parker Whitney and others, 104,554 acres. The final decision after the case had been appealed to the United States Supreme Court allowed the claimants 19,112 acres.

A number of grants which for more than a century had been considered legally perfect in title were thrown out by the Court of Private Land Claims because they were made by political authorities after their successors had been appointed. Among the large areas claimed and completely rejected were the Bartolomé Baca grant in Valencia County consisting of 650,000 acres, the Gervacio Nolan grant of 275,000 acres in Taos County, and the town of Socorro grant which contained, according to the claimants, 843,259 acres.

During the early years of the Court of Private Land Claims town grants were confirmed to the villas of Albuquerque and

Santa Fe. The Albuquerque grant was confirmed for 17,361 acres, four square leagues, in 1892. The United States Attorney prior to his annual report October 18, 1892, reported the case without recommendation for an appeal, but in the report of that date he advised that the decision be appealed by the Government of the Supreme Court. The Santa Fe grant was confirmed for 17,361 acres in 1894, and also appealed by the United States Attorney. The Santa Fe grant case was argued before the United States Supreme Court and the judgment of the Court of Private Land Claims was reversed on the ground that the laws of Spain did not make grants to towns with perfect titles. When the Albuquerque claim was brought before the Supreme Court by the United States Attorney the decision in the Santa Fe grant case was used as a precedent and the land claim rejected.

ALBUQUERQUE, JANUARY 1, 1883

The Miranda and Beaubien, better known as the Maxwell grant and the Las Vegas grant, which was also claimed by the heirs of Luis Maria Cabeza de Baca, included lands confirmed by Congress amounting to nearly 2,500,000 acres. The region claimed by the Las Vegas grant, consisting of about 500,000 acres in the Gallinas Valley, under documents dated April 6, 1835, was also claimed by the heirs of Baca, who possessed papers showing that the same area had been given to Luis Maria Cabezade Baca, February 18, 1820. The surveyor general of New Mexico in 1858 reported the Baca and the town of Las Vegas grant as legitimate claims. The heirs of Baca agreed to take other lands in lieu of their claim. Congress in 1860 confirmed grants allowing the heirs to select a maximum of five tracts, two of which known as Baca Location No. 1 and Baca

Location No. 2 were within the boundaries of New Mexico. The validity of the Las Vegas grant was contested in the courts and the final decision, which was rendered in October, 1889, held that the grant was a legal one in all respects. After the case had been carried to the Supreme Court and the decision of the lower court had been upheld, the United States issued a patent to the town of Las Vegas June 27, 1893. The Territorial Supreme Court appointed a board of seven trustees to have control of the grant. The first officers of the board were: Jefferson Raynolds, president; Eugenio Romero, vice-president; Elisha V. Long, secretary, and Charles Ilfeld, treasurer. The act of the Legislature passed March 12, 1903, placed the control of the grant in the hands of the district court of San Miguel County and provided for the appointing of a board of trustees of not more than five members who should be controlled by the court in the same manner as receivers appointed by the court. When in 1907 a general law governing community land grants was enacted, the Las Vegas grant was excepted from its effect.

The Maxwell grant, which embraced the western half of Colfax County, was made to Carlos Beaubien and Guadalupe Miranda by Governor Armijo, January 11, 1841. The grant was suspended February 22, 1844, on complaint of the Indians and settlers of Taos, but regranted April 18, 1844. In reply to the complaints of the people of Taos, Beaubien and Miranda stated that the grant did not include more than fifteen or eighteen leagues. The boundaries of the grant as described in the original petition were as follows: "Commencing below the junction of the Rayado and Red Rivers, from thence in a direct line to the east to the first hills, from thence following the course of the Red River in a northerly direction of Uña de Gato with Red River, from thence following along said hills to the east of the Uña de Gato River to the summit of the tableland, from whence, turning northwest, following said summit to the summit of the mountain which separates the waters of the rivers which run towards the east from those which run towards the west, from thence following the summit of said mountain in a southerly direction to the first hill east of the Rayado River; from thence following along the brow of said hill to the place of beginning." The grant was confirmed by Congress in 1860 for 1,714,764 acres. Beaubien bought out Miranda about 1846. When Beaubien died, February 10, 1846, his son-in-law, Lucien Benjamin Maxwell, purchased the rights of the other heirs. Maxwell sold the grant to an English syndicate in 1867 for $1,250,000 through Wilson Waddingham, J. B. Chaffee and others, who received $600,000 for making the sale.

The Commissioner of Public Lands in the instructions for the survey of the grant issued to the surveyor general of New Mexico June 28, 1869, stated that the boundaries as reported by the surveyor general in 1857 were very indefinite but appeared to contain more than eleven square leagues, which was the maximum that governors of New Mexico were permitted to grant. The commissioner ruled that the grant should be limited to eleven square leagues. The Secretary of the Interior, December 21, 1869, held that the grant could be surveyed for a maximum of eleven square leagues for each of the original grantees, that is, twenty-two square leagues in all. The new owners were incorporated May 12, 1870, under the name of the Maxwell Land Grant and Railway Company. The Commissioner of Public Lands, March 16, 1876, ordered the surveyor general of New Mexico to inform the Maxwell land grant claimants to select twenty-two square leagues in satisfaction of their claim. However, George H. Williams, United States Attorney General, in 1872 held that the Mexican law of limitation had no effect in limiting the size of the grant since Congress had confirmed it by metes and bounds. The grant was surveyed by the United States in 1878 and the patent was issued by the United States Land Office in 1879. Later legal proceedings did not overthrow the title to the extensive grant. The Maxwell Land Grant and Railway Company went into bankruptcy and was re-organized as the Maxwell Land Grant Company June 25, 1880, with a capital stock of 1,000,000 pounds. The Maxwell Cattle Company was incorporated September 29, 1881, for $20,000,000.

For many years land grant litigation formed an important phase of legal practice in New Mexico. It not only involved the validity of the grants themselves, but the rights of heirs and members of communities to confirmed grants.

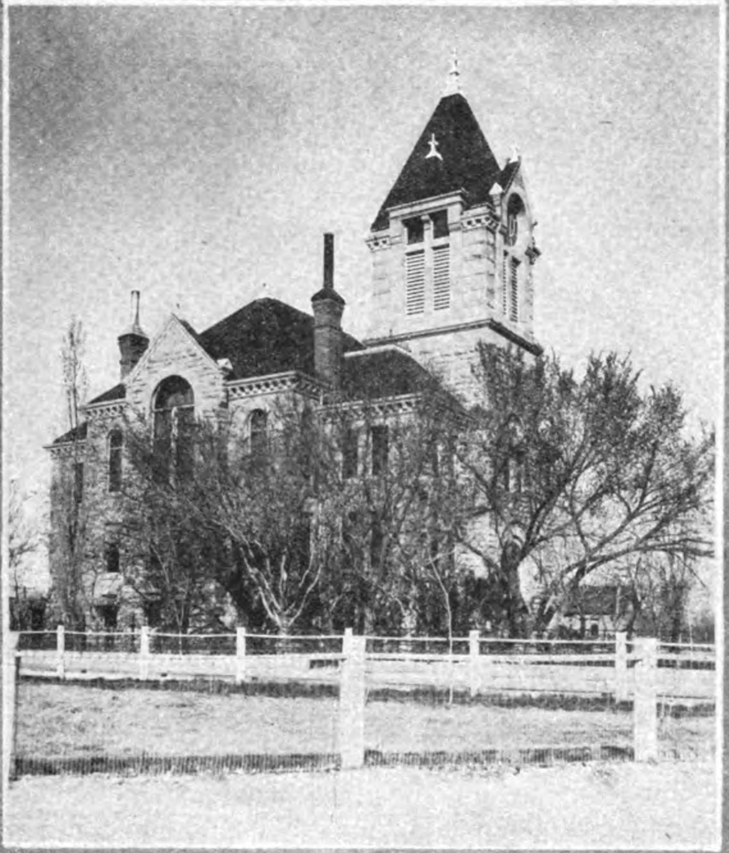
CHAPTER XXVII

SCHOOLS, CHURCHES AND NEWSPAPERS, 1879 TO 1911

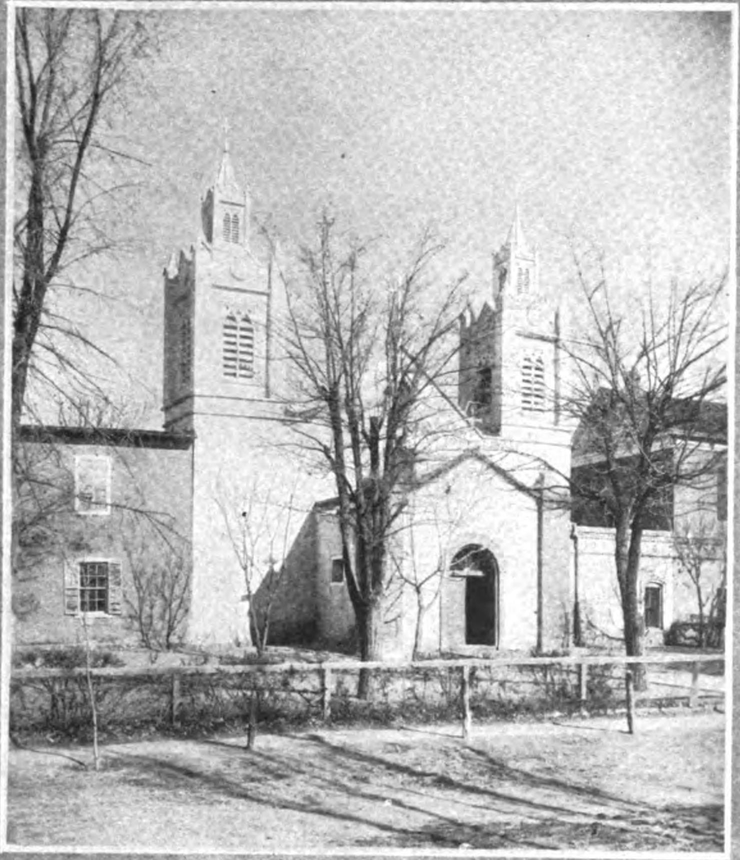
Education in New Mexico between the Mexican war and the advent of the railroads, 1848 to 1878 did not develop rapidly. The only schools were those of the Catholic Church, the Methodist school at Tiptonville and a few struggling semi-public schools. There was no general system of public education until 1891. During that year 523 school districts were established under the school law passed February 12. 1891. In the principal towns grade schools and high schools were made possible through special taxes levied for school purposes. During the four-year period, 1889 to 1893, a number of Territorial institutions of learning were created, including a university, an agricultural college, a school of mines, a military institute and two normal schools. It is at present generally admitted that this educational revival had the effect of creating more Territorial educational institutions than were needed and more than could be properly developed and supported.

Between 1879 and 1891 the Congregational, Presbyterian and Methodist Churches established a large number of rural mission schools and a number of academies some of which went out of existence when the public schools and Territorial educational institutions were created. The New West Education Commission formed by the Congregationalists in 1880 was organized for the purpose of establishing grade schools and academies in New Mexico, Arizona and Utah. The plans grew out of the educational activities of Colorado College. The Santa Fe Academy was founded in 1878 by President Tenny of Colorado College, and C. R. Bliss who was later the executive head of the New West Education Commission. The Albuquerque Academy was established in 1879 by a group of local men supported by Colorado College.

These Academies were the nucleus for the work of the New West Education Commission to which they were transferred in 1880. The Santa Fe Academy was closed in 1882. Principal H. O. Ladd withdrew from the academy in 1881 and established the University of New Mexico, which was supported largely by New England Congregationalists. This was the second school bearing the name of University of New Mexico. In 1862 an institution with that name was incorporated, but was never opened. Ladd continued his school until 1888 when it was permanently closed. The New West Education Commission



Bernalillo County Court House.
Located in Historic Old Albuquerque, just Outside City Limits.



Church of San Felipe de Neri.
Three Hundred Years Old, Erected by Padres in Early days of Spanish Occupation.

opened the Whitin Hall School at Santa Fe in 1888 which continued until July 1, 1893, when the public schools made it no longer necessary. The Albuquerque Academy became the most important institution of the New West Education Commission. During the first term while located near the Old Albuquerque plaza, the enrollment was twenty-six pupils. The school was moved to New Albuquerque, as it was called, in 1881 and in 1890 Perkins Hall was built at the corner of Edith Street and Central Avenue at a cost of $25,000. The school had 400 students enrolled during 1891. In all 3,000 students attended this institution between 1879 and 1892. During the years 1887 to 1891 the most prosperous in the history of this institution, C. E. Hodgin was principal. The Las Vegas Academy was established by the New West Education Commission in 1880. It was not until 1883 that a suitable building was erected. According to the report for 1891 there were 477 students and eleven teachers. The institution closed in 1894 and was never re-opened.

In addition to the schools established in Santa Fe, Albuquerque and Las Vegas a number of rural schools were founded, some of which continued for only a year while others outlived the New West Education Commission which was merged with the Congregational Education Society in 1893. The White Oaks Academy at White Oaks, Lincoln County and a school at Deming, Luna County, were conducted from 1889 until 1891. The schools opened at Bernalillo, Armijo and Ranchos de Albuquerque in the vicinity of Albuquerque were not well attended and were discontinued at the end of the first year. The Barelas school opened in 1889 and the one at Atrisco started in 1892 served a useful purpose. A group of schools were founded by the commission in settlements fifty miles west of Albuquerque. The Cubero and San Rafael schools were organized in 1884. The work at Cubero was discontinued after several years, but was resumed in 1895 and at the same time the school at San Mateo, which had been discontinued, was re-opened. The school at Cabezon on the Rio Puerco, thirty miles northeast of San Mateo, was organized in 1899, but closed at the end of the same year.

The Presbyterian Board of Home Missions between 1879 and 1891 founded twenty-three day schools and two boarding schools for children of Mexican descent. The Santa Fe day school which was founded in 1867 had seventy pupils in 1891, and the Fernandez de Taos school opened in 1873 had sixty-six students in that year. Schools at Corrales and Las Cruces were opened in 1878 and each had an enrollment of twenty-five pupils in 1891. Schools were established in 1881 at Jemez Hot Springs, Los Alamos, Glorieta, Ocaté, Agua Negra and Ranchos de Taos. The attendance in 1891 ranged between fifteen and sixty pupils in these schools. The El Rito and the Prado de Taos schools were organized in 1883. The former had thirty students in

1891 and the latter sixty. In the same year the Santa Fe boarding school was opened and had an enrollment of seventy-five. Three schools were established in 1884; at Pajarito, El Llano and Penasco. The first of these had fifty pupils in 1891; the second, fifteen and the third, twenty. The boarding school at Las Vegas which was organized in 1886 had seventy pupils in 1891. In 1887 schools were opened at Capulin, Raton, Rociada and Embudo. The enrollment at these schools in 1891 was twenty-five, fifty, fifteen and thirty, respectively. The Buena Vista and Albuquerque schools which were founded in 1888, had thirty and twenty scholars, respectively in 1891. The schools at Chaparito, Agua de Lobo and Arroyo Seco were opened in 1889 and two years later the first had an enrollment of fifty students; the second, twenty; and the third, fifteen. Three schools were established in 1891: Juan Tafoya which began with twenty-five pupils; Peña Blanca, which opened with forty; and Las Valles which had thirty students during the first term.

The Board of Home Missions of the Presbyterian Church also founded four-day schools for Indian children and one boarding school. The first of the Indian day schools, which was established at Laguna in 1876, had forty pupils in 1891. In 1877 schools were opened at the Pueblos of Zuñi and Jemez, twenty students being enrolled at Zuñi in 1891 and thirty at Jemez. The boarding school for Indian children at Albuquerque which was started in 1880, had seventy students in 1891.

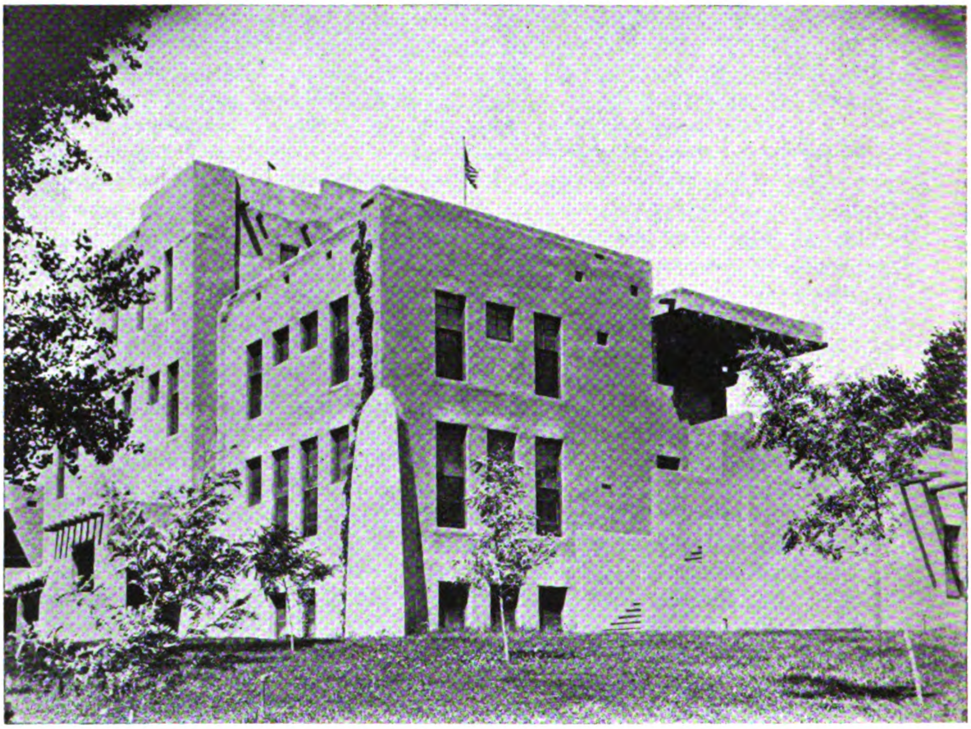
The Presbyterian Board established a school for American children in 1867 which was called the Santa Fe Academy. In 1891 the institution had three teachers and seventy pupils. The Indian boarding school and the Santa Fe Academy were closed in the latter part of 1891. During the school year, 1890-1891, the Presbyterians supported fifty-seven teachers and thirty-five schools in which were enrolled 1,270 scholars.

Ten mission schools were organized by the Methodist Church before 1891. The first of these was opened by Mrs. Thomas Harwood at Tiptonville in 1869. The others were founded gradually as the work was extended. The schools and enrollment in 1891 were as follows: Tiptonville, 40; Peralta, 32; Dona Ana, 30; Espanola, 25; La Joya, 25; Socorro, 70; Taos, 30; Tramperas, 26; Ranchito, 50; and Costilla, 25. The Albuquerque College grew out of the school conducted at Albuquerque by Mrs. Harwood. The school was incorporated February 3, 1887 and opened in the fall of the year with a faculty of six teachers and a student body of sixty-eight. In 1891 the school was closed, but it was later re-opened as the Harwood School.

Catholic teaching orders founded their institutions between 1850 and 1878. The Sisters of Loretto, the Sisters of Charity, the Sisters of Mercy, the Christian Brothers and the Jesuits conducted schools that continued to be an important factor in the extension of education. In 1891 the Sisters of Loretto were in charge of schools at the following places: Santa Fe, Taos, Mora, Las Vegas, Bernalillo, Socorro and Las Cruces. There were 1,145 pupils in these schools and forty teachers. At that time the Sisters of Charity conducted the Santa Fe Orphan School, a school at Albuquerque and at Old Albuquerque, and one at San Miguel. There were eighteen teachers and 846 pupils working in these schools in 1891. The schools of the Sisters of Mercy were established at Mesilla, Silver City, Los Alamos and Arriba, in which there were thirteen teachers and 379 pupils in 1891. The Christian Brothers had two schools in 1891: St. Michael's College at Santa Fe which enrolled 180 students; and De La Salle Institute at Las Vegas which had 150 pupils. The Jesuit College, founded at Las Vegas in 1877, was moved to Denver in the later eighties.

The public school system of New Mexico came into existence in 1891 and immediately furnished a more complete educational system than the church institutions had been able to provide. The opening of the Territorial educational institutions in the early nineties was an important factor in rapidly building up a school system. City schools were started in 1891 at Albuquerque, East Las Vegas, Santa Fe, Raton, Socorro, Silver City and Deming. Schools districts were organized to the number of 523, but in some of these no school was taught as is shown by the fact there were only 487 teachers in 1891. The school population was placed at 43,775 and of this number 22,599 were enrolled in the schools although the average daily attendance was only 14,435. In many of the districts the school term was either three or four months.

The revenues for the public schools and the Territorial educational institutions increased during the twenty-year period between 1891 and 1911. The total amount spent for public schools in 1891 was $48,998, in 1901 the sum increased to $258,226, and in 1911 the amount was $997,891. The period of twenty years made an increase of 1,900 per cent in expenditures for public schools. The Territorial educational institutions during the nineties were provided for by means of a mill tax. This system was abandoned in 1905 and what were considered large appropriations were made March 16, 1905 for the fifty-seventh fiscal year. The appropriations for 1905 ranged between $12,000 and $18,000 while in 1911 they were between $16,000 and $32,000. There were bond issues and special appropriations for buildings, but these probably did not total $500,000 for all the institutions. The schools received gifts, federal aid in appropriations and lands, but these were not large. It may be said that the total annual income for each of these institutions, excepting fees, did not exceed $50,000 in 1911. If $10,000 is accepted as an average income during the early nineties under the mill tax system, the increase in revenue during the Territorial period may with a degree of accuracy be placed at 400 per cent. It is evident that with a maximum of $50,000 a year for support, the Territorial educational institutions could not be other than struggling schools. The College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts and the Military Institute were somewhat more fortunate than the University, School of Mines and the Normal Schools because of financial aid from the United States government other than from lands donated by the Federal government to the institutions. The unimportance of public lands as a source of revenue may be realized when it is stated that the largest annual sum received by any of the educational institutions from public lands in the Territorial period was $5,000.



ADMINISTRATION BUILDING, STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW MEXICO, ALBUQUERQUE

During the school year of 1911-1912 the University of New Mexico enrolled 148 students including preparatory department and summer school attendance. College students numbered sixty-five. The expense for the year was $46,588. The College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts had 372 Students in college, preparatory and farmers' work. There were forty-nine students of college grade in this school. The total expenditure was $130,319. The Federal appropriation for the school and the experiment station for the year was $80,000. The School of Mines during 1911-1912 registered fifty-seven students of whom twenty-two were of college rank. The institution's expenditures for the year amounted. $21,495. The New Mexico Military Institute enrolled 137 students, forty-five of whom were in the fifth and sixth year courses which were equivalent to the first two years of college work. The total expenditure for the year was $94,970, but this included $50,000 for buildings which was a special grant.

The following enrollments and expenditures give some conception of the work of the New Mexico Normal Schools in 1911-1912. The Normal University at Las Vegas in summer school, training school, academy and normal school had 423 students. Of this number 145 were registered in the normal and academy. The normal course was of junior college grade and included about forty-five students. The expenditures for the year amounted to $34,662. The Normal School at Silver City in courses similar to those of the Normal University at Las Vegas, registered 431 students. Of these eighty-two were enrolled in the normal and academy work. Probably about thirty-five of these were of college grade. The institution spent $23,679 during the year. The Spanish American Normal School at El Rito in Rio Arriba County was established in 1909 near the end of the Territorial period. The student body in 1911-1912 consisted of ninety-nine pupils ranging from the lower grades to high school. Expenditures for the year amounted to $5,167.

The following figures of the number of students of college rank attending educational institutions at the end of the Territorial period is only approximately correct, but is as close as can be determined:

Name of School	Students of College Rank
Territorial University of New Mexico, Albuquerque	65
New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Las Cruces	49
New Mexico Normal University, Las Vegas	45
New Mexico Military Institute, Roswell	45
New Mexico Normal School, Silver City	30
New Mexico School of Mines, Socorro	22
Total number of students of college rank	256
Total number of students below college rank	1411
Total enrolled	1667

The total number of pupils enrolled in the schools of New Mexico during the school year of 1911-1912 was as follows: In the public schools, 61,027; in the Indian schools, 2,085; and in the private and sectarian schools, 4,252. Public school systems operated in fifty-five cities and towns. Four months or less school was taught in 452 of the 990 school districts. The large increase in the population of New Mexico between 1900 and 1911 was responsible for the establishment of more than 400 new school districts.

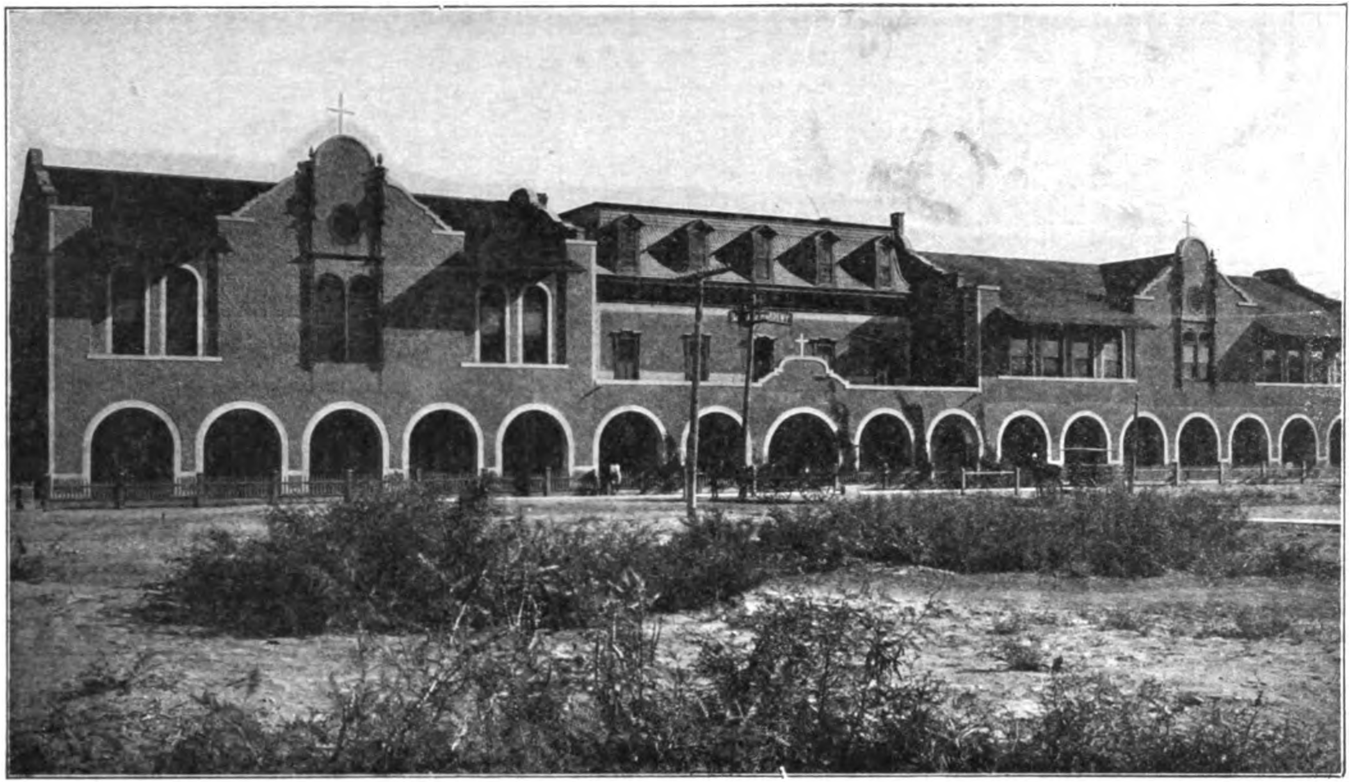
Schools of New Mexico in 1911 under church control included twenty-one Catholic, thirteen Presbyterian, four Congregational, three Methodist, and one Baptist. The Catholic schools were: St. Vincent's Academy under the Sisters of Charity and three parochial schools at Albuquerque; parochial school at Bernalillo, Clayton and Folsom, managed by the Sisters of Loretto; Loretto Academy at Las Cruces; the Immaculate Conception Academy, and the De La Salle Institute at Las Vegas; Nuestra Senora de Guadalupe and St. Peter's school under the Sisters of St. Francis at Pena Blanca and Roswell; Mount Carmel at Socorro; Loretto Academy and St. Francis' school at Santa Fe; Sisters of Loretto school at Taos; and Loretto Convent at Mora. St. Katherine's Indian School at Santa Fe; St. Michael's College at Santa Fe controlled by the Christian Brothers; and St. Vincent's Orphans' Home at Santa Fe under the Sisters of Charity.

The Presbyterian institutions were the following: Menaul School at Albuquerque; El Rito and Chamisal missions; John Hyson Memorial at Chimayo; Embudo, Agua Negra and Jewet Navaho at Dixon, Holman and Liberty; El Prado and Pyle Memorial at Taos; Ranchos de Taos school; Allison mission at Santa Fe; Tierra Amarilla and Truchas missions.

The Congregational, Methodist and Baptist schools in 1911 were eight in number. The Congregational institutions included the Rio Grande Industrial School at Albuquerque, Cubero, Cebolleta and San Rafael schools. The Methodist schools were: The Navaho mission at Farmington, Harwood school at Albuquerque and Western College at Artesia. The Baptist Church in 1911 was operating a school called the New Mexico Baptist College at Alamogordo, which was incorporated March 11, 1901.

It is evident that the progress in education in the period between 1879 and 1911 was in the field of public schools. Sectarian institutions became of less importance after 1891. The Territorial educational institutions made a beginning, but were handicapped by the lack of funds.

Illiteracy in New Mexico was very high in 1880. Of the population more than ten years of age which was 87,966 there were 57,156 who could not read nor write. The per cent. of illiterates dropped from sixty-five to forty-five in the decade between 1880 and 1890. With the establishing of the public schools and the increased migration from the States the illiteracy percentage continued to decline. In 1910 it was twenty per cent, the number of persons above the age of ten being 267,595 and the number who could not read nor write, 41,637. There were 15,519 fewer illiterates in 1910 than in 1880.



Loretto Academy, Las Cruces

The church membership of New Mexico increased in the period between 1879 and 1911 as shown by the census reports for 1890 and 1906.

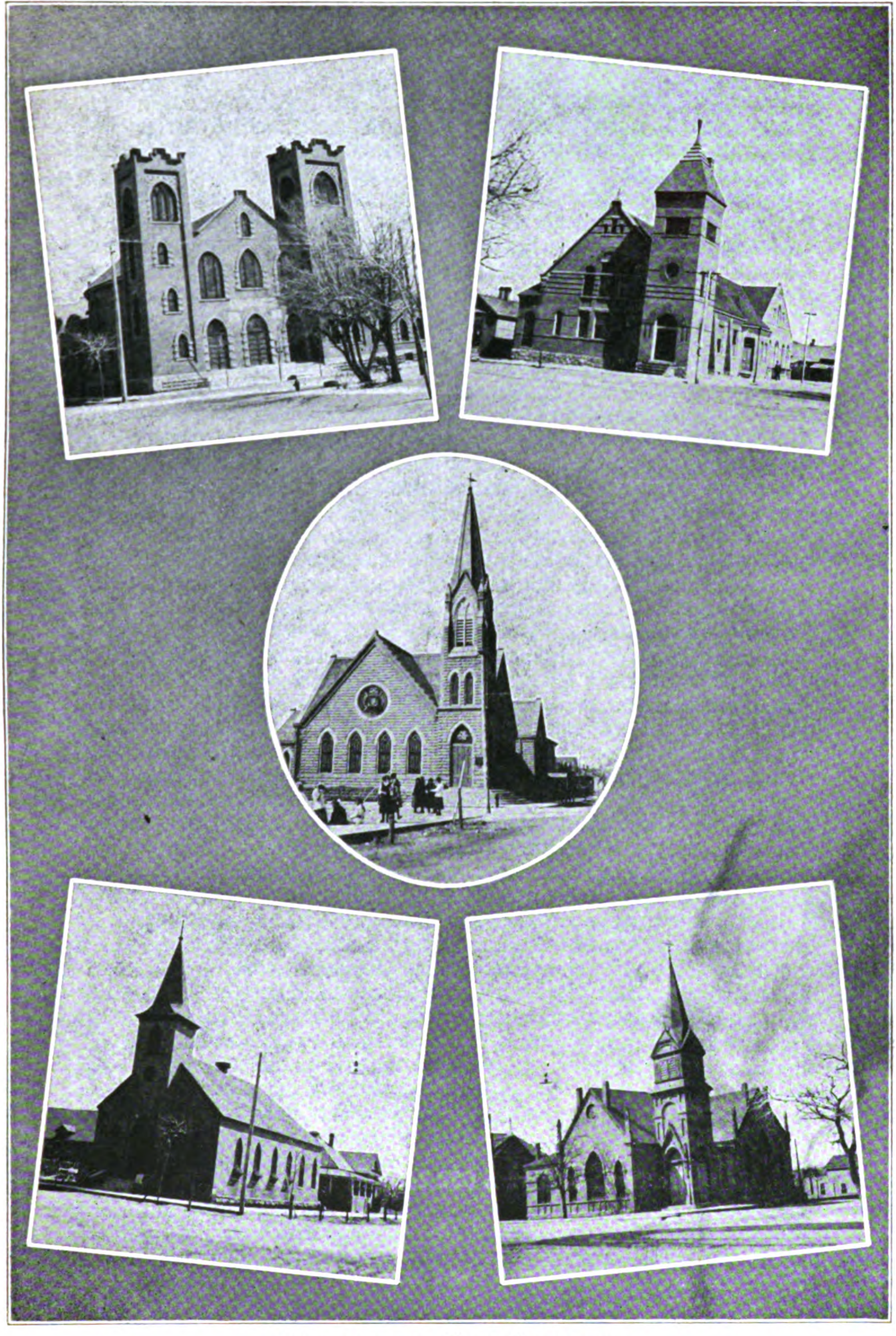
	Total Members	Catholic	Methodist	Presbyterian	Baptist	Episcopal	Latter Day Saints	Disc. of Christ
1890 --	105,748	100,576	2,360	1,275	355	373	456	----
1906 --	137,009	121,558	6,560	2,935	2,403	869	738	1,092

The archbishopric of Santa Fe with the suffragan bishoprics of Denver and Tucson was the largest church organization in the Southwest. With the railroads came the establishment of new churches such as the Immaculate Conception at Albuquerque which was founded by Reverand Lawrence Fede in 1882 and served by Reverend A. M. Mandalari from 1894 until 1924.

Archbishop Lamy retired July 18, 1885 and Bishop Salpointe was made archbishop. The new head had come to New Mexico as an assistant to Bishop Lamy and had been Bishop of Tucson. Archbishop Salpointe was succeeded January 9, 1894 by Reverend P. L. Chapelle, who had been coadjutor since August 21, 1891. In 1893 Reverend Chapelle on his return from a missionary journey to Europe brought twenty-two churchmen to work in the archbishopric of Santa Fe. The formal installation of Reverend Chapelle as archbishop took place in Santa Fe on October 17, 1895, Cardinal Gibbons being the chief official present. A few years later Archbishop Chapelle was transferred to the archepiscopal see of New Orleans and the Bishop of Tucson, Peter Bourgade, who had come to New Mexico with Bishop Lamy in 1869, was installed as Archbishop of Santa Fe, April 6, 1899. Reverend J. B. Pitaval succeeded Peter Bourgade as Archbishop of Santa Fe on August 18, 1909.

The Protestant Churches made comparatively little progress in the Territorial period as is shown by the table presented above. Reverend Thomas Harwood continued the Methodist missionary work. In 1884 the mission was divided into two organizations, one known as the Spanish mission and the other as the English. Annual mission conferences were held during the period. Reverend G. K. Dunlop was made missionary bishop of Arizona and New Mexico by the general convention of the Episcopal Church in 1880. Churches were built at Las Vegas and Albuquerque. Bishop Dunlop died in 1888 and was succeeded by Bishop Kendrick who was consecrated on January 18, 1889. In 1906 the Protestant Churches ranked in membership in the following order: Methodist, Presbyterian, Baptist, Disciples of Christ and Episcopal.

When the railroads entered New Mexico in 1879 nine weekly newspapers and one daily were being published. In the short period of three years the number of publications increased to thirty-eight, consisting of six dailies, twenty-seven weeklies, two semi-weeklies, one monthly and one semi-monthly. The total number of publications did not increase between 1882 and 1900,



ALBUQUERQUE CITY CHURCHES

the number at that time published being forty-two. However, a number of publications were discontinued during this period and new ones started. The period of largest increase of newspapers in the history of New Mexico came in the decade between 1900 and 1910. During the latter year there were ninety-one papers being published; three dailies, eighty-six weeklies and two monthlies. These figures show that the common type of newspaper in New Mexico in the Territorial period was the weekly paper and that the number increased from nine in 1879 to eighty-six in 1910.

The daily newspapers of New Mexico have been few in number. The pioneer daily, *The Santa Fe New Mexican,* was alone in its field in 1879 having been started as a daily in 1868. It was owned and managed until 1881 by Manderfield and Tucker when the paper was sold to the New Mexican Printing and Publishing Company, incorporated April 15, 1880. A new company was organized called the New Mexican Printing Company on August 9, 1883 in which Max Frost and W. H. Bailhache were the chief stockholders. Governor W. T. Thornton and associates controlled the paper from January 1, 1894 to January 25, 1897 when Frost and his friends again purchased the paper.

The first daily paper published in Albuquerque called the *Golden Gate* began publication June 5, 1880. The name was changed to that of *Journal* and the Albuquerque Publishing Company was organized September 25, 1880 by E. S. Stover, W. E. Hazeldine and Franz Huning. J. G. Albright bought the *Journal* and combined it with the *Democrat* which became the name of the paper. The Democrat Printing and Publishing Company was organized December 29, 1882. The *Democrat* was purchased by A. A. Grant who organized the Democrat Publishing Company, April 5, 1895. The name of the paper was changed to *Journal Democrat* in 1899. D. A. Macpherson took charge of the paper in 1903 for the Grant Estate and the name was changed to *Journal.* The publication has always been issued as a morning paper. *The Evening Citizen* established in 1885 was purchased by Thomas Hughes and W. T. McCreight in the fall of 1886. They continued the publication until 1905. In 1909 it was merged with the *Tribune,* which had been running for a short time under the name of *Tribune Citizen.* Under this name the paper was published until 1911, when it was merged with the *Herald,* which had begun publication as a weekly in 1894. The paper has been known since as the *Albuquerque Evening Herald.* The only other daily published in Albuquerque during the Territorial period was the *Sun* which was issued from May to October, 1908.

The *Optic* began publication in Las Vegas as a daily on November 4, 1879. It was under the control of the founder, R. A. Kistler, until August 30, 1897, when the Las Vegas Publishing Company was incorporated. In 1903 the Optic Company took over the paper and combined it with the *Record.* J. G. McNary was president and manager of the paper. The Gazette was started at Las Vegas as a weekly in 1872 and became a daily in 1879, but was later discontinued.

Socorro had two daily papers in 1882, the *Sun* and the *News.* The *Sun* was discontinued in 1885. The *News* also went out of existence. The *Socorro Chieftain* was started as a daily in 1883, but later changed to a weekly which has been continuously published under different managements.

The *Record* at Roswell founded as a weekly on March 6, 1891 was changed to a daily, March 2, 1903. The *Roswell News* was the successor to the *Register* and *Tribune,* which were combined in February, 1906, and published thereafter as a daily.

Weekly newspapers published partly in Spanish and partly in English as well as entirely in Spanish have been printed in New Mexico continuously since 1846. Among the important publications of this class which belong to the period from 1878 to 1911, the following may be mentioned. *El Nuevo Mexicano,* of Santa Fe was started in 1880. However, the *New Mexican* from the beginning in 1862 had been published partly in Spanish and partly in English. The *Revista Catolica* founded in 1875 at Las Vegas was continued during this period. *La Voz del Pueblo* was established by Nestor Montoya at Santa Fe in 1889. Two years later it was purchased by Felix Martinez and moved to Las Vegas where it has since been published. *La Bandera Americana* at Albuquerque was started May 6, 1895 by Manuel Salazar and was purchased August 3, 1901 by Frank Hubbell and Nestor Montoya.

The typical newspaper of the sparcely settled parts of New Mexico was the weekly publication. These papers seldom remained for any considerable length of time under the same management and name. Some of the weekly papers that were founded with the opening of the country by the railroads were: The *Socorro Chieftan* at Socorro started in 1884; the *Sierra County Advocate* at Hillsboro founded in 1884; the *Colfax County Stockman* established at Springer April 1881; the *Range* at Raton founded in 1881; the *Rio Grande Republica* started at Las Cruces in April 1881; the *Enterprise* established at Silver City October 25, 1882; the *Leader* at White Oaks in Lincoln County founded October 1, 1882; the *Headlight* at Deming in 1887; the *Northwest New Mexican* at Chama, Rio Arriba County in 1885; the *Liberal* at Lordsburg in 1887; the *San Juan Review* at Aztec in 1888; *La Revista de Taos* in 1894; the *Enterprise* at Clayton in 1888; the *Carbon City News* at Gallup in 1888; the *Argus* at Carlsbad in 1889; the *News* at Alamogordo in 1896; the *News* at Tucumcari in 1902; the *News-Herald* at Estancia in 1904; the *News* at Clovis in 1904; the *Times* at Portales in 1903; and the *Leader* founded at Lovington in 1910.

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE STATE OF NEW MEXICO, 1912 TO 1925

The only governors in the history of New Mexico chosen by the people were the following:

William C. MacDonald	Jan. 1, 1912—	Jan. 1, 1917
Ezequiel C. de Baca	Jan. 1, 1917—	Feb. 18, 1917
Washington E. Lindsey	Feb. 18, 1917—	Jan. 1, 1919
Octaviano A. Larrazolo	Jan. 1, 1919—	Jan. 1, 1921
Merritt C. Mechem	Jan. 1, 1921—	Jan. 1, 1923
James F. Hinkle	Jan. 1, 1923—	Jan. 1, 1925
Arthur T. Hannett	Jan. 1, 1925—	

William C. MacDonald, a democrat, was elected governor in the fall of 1911 in the first state election, defeating Holm O. Bursum. The democratic victory was due in a large measure to the work of the Progressive republicans who opposed the republican candidate. The constitution provided for a four-year term for governor, but a constitutional amendment was passed November 3, 1914, making the term of office two years.

The constitution also provided that the first state officers should hold office until January 1, 1917. This five-year term was due to the uncertainty as to when the first state election would be held—whether it would be held in November, 1911, or November, 1912. In either case the officers were to hold office dating from January 1, 1912.

In the state election of November 7, 1916, Ezequiel C. de Baca, who had been lieutenant-governor, was made chief executive, but De Baca died February 18, 1917, and W. E. Lindsey, who defeated W. C. MacDonald for the office of lieutenant-governor, came into control of the governor's office. The democrats won the election only to lose it. The office of lieutenant-governor proved to be more important than that of governor. The vote for governor and lieutenant-governor was close as shown by the following:

	Nov. 7, 1911
For Governor:	
William C. MacDonald, Dem.	31,036
Holm A. Bursum, Rep.	28,019
For Lieutenant-Governor:	
Ezequiel C. de Baca, Dem.	29,642
Malaquias Martinez, Rep.	28,906

	Nov. 7, 1916
For Governor:	
Ezequiel C. de Baca, Dem.	32,732
Holm O. Bursum, Rep.	31,524
For Lieutenant-Governor:	
Washington E. Lindsey, Rep.	32,742
William C. MacDonald, Dem.	31,757

Although the democrats won the office of governor in the elections of 1911 and 1916, they did not control all of the elective executive offices. In 1911 and in 1916 six of the eleven executive offices were won by Republicans.

In the fall of 1918 the republicans nominated Octaviano A. Larrazolo, a former democrat, for governor and succeeded for the first time in winning the election. Larrazolo received 23,752 votes and Felix Garcia, the democratic candidate, 22,433 votes.

The republicans were again successful in electing the governor in 1920. Merritt C. Mechem defeated the democratic nominee, Richard H. Hanna, a former republican, by a vote of 54,426 to 50,755.

The democrats succeeded in electing their candidate for governor, James F. Hinkle, in the fall of 1922. C. L. Hill, the republican nominee, received 49,363 votes and James F. Hinkle 60,317 votes.

According to official figures of the State Canvassing Board Arthur T. Hannett, democrat, was elected governor on November 4, 1924, defeating Manuel B. Otero by a vote of 56,183 to 55,984. This was the closest election for the office of governor in the history of the State. Quo warranto proceedings were filed against Governor Hannett by Attorney-General Armstrong for Manuel B. Otero, the defeated candidate, in the District Court at Albuquerque on January 10, 1925.

The elective executive offices have not been all in the control of the same political party at the beginning of any administration since statehood. Of the eleven officials elected in the fall of 1911 six were republicans and five democrats including the governor. The death of the democratic governor made the division for the years 1917 to 1919 six republicans and four democrats. In 1919 and in 1921 all of the elective officers were republicans except one of the Corporation Commissioners who had been elected in 1916. The table turned in 1922 when all of the offices were gained by the democrats except two of the Corporation Commissioners. The 1924 election resulted in the issuing of certificates of election to all democrats except the lieutenant-governor. One of the Corporation Commissioners, a republican, continued in office from an earlier election.

The following table shows the party of the elective executive office holders from 1911 to 1924:

	1911	1916	1918	1920	1922	1924
Governor	Dem.	Dem.	Rep.	Rep.	Dem.	Dem.
Lieutenant-Governor	Dem.	Rep.	Rep.	Rep.	Dem.	Rep.
Secretary of State	Dem.	Dem.	Rep.	Rep.	Dem.	Dem.
State Auditor	Rep.	Rep.	Rep.	Rep.	Dem.	Dem.
State Treasurer	Dem.	Dem.	Rep.	Rep.	Dem.	Dem.
Corporation Commissioner	Rep.	Rep.	Rep.	Rep.	Rep.	Rep.
Corporation Commissioner	Rep.	Dem.	Dem.	Dem.	Dem.	Dem.
Corporation Commissioner	Rep.	Rep.	Rep.	Rep.	Rep.	Dem.
Supt. of Schools	Dem.	Rep.	Rep.	Rep.	Dem.	Dem.
Com. of Public Lands	Rep.	Rep.	Rep.	Rep.	Dem.	Dem.
Attorney-General	Rep.	Dem.	Rep.	Rep.	Dem.	Dem.

The State Senate was elected for a term of four years as provided in the State Constitution, the members chosen in the fall of 1911 holding office until January 1, 1917. The two sessions of the first legislature in 1912 and 1913 and the second legislature in 1915, occurred during the term of this body which was composed of seventeen republicans and seven democrats. The Senate of the third, fourth, fifth and sixth legislatures, 1917, 1919, 1921 and 1923 contained a working majority of republicans, the party having fifteen members while the democrats numbered nine. The election of 1924 gave the republicans control, but by the narrow majority of thirteen to eleven members.

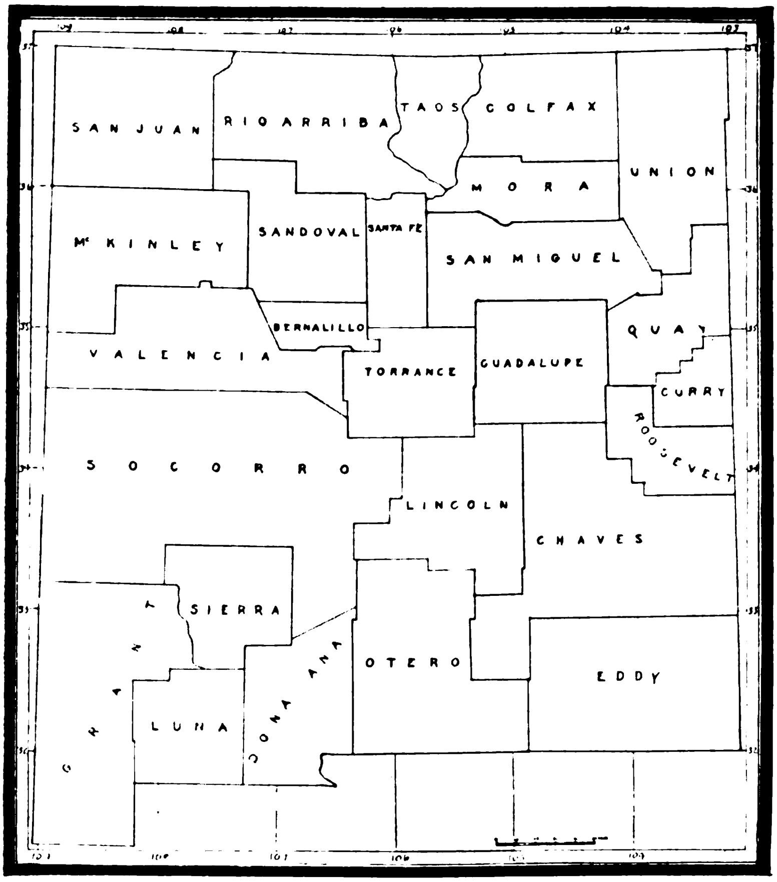
The only changes made in the senatorial districts since 1912 have been the adding of new counties to neighboring districts. Lea County in 1917 became a part of the twentieth district; De Baca County in 1917 a part of the twenty-first district; Hidalgo in 1919 a part of the thirteenth district; Harding in 1921 was made a part of the ninth senatorial district; and Catron County in 1921 became a part of the fourteenth senatorial district.

The House of Representatives was republican until 1922. In 1911 the division was thirty-three republicans and sixteen democrats, in 1916 thirty and nineteen and in 1914, 1918 and 1920 thirty-four republicans and fifteen democrats. The democrats gained a majority membership in 1922, the division being thirty-two to seventeen and again in 1924 by a representation of twenty-five to twenty-four.

The districts of the House of Representatives were not changed after statehood except that new counties were added to the existing districts, as follows: Lea to the nineteenth; De Baca to the twentieth; Hidalgo to the twenty-second; Harding to the eleventh; and Catron to the second.

The judicial districts were not changed until 1921 when the ninth district was created. Lea and De Baca counties were added to the fifth judicial district in 1917. Hidalgo County in 1919 was made a part of the sixth district, Catron County a part of the seventh and Harding County a part of the eighth district.

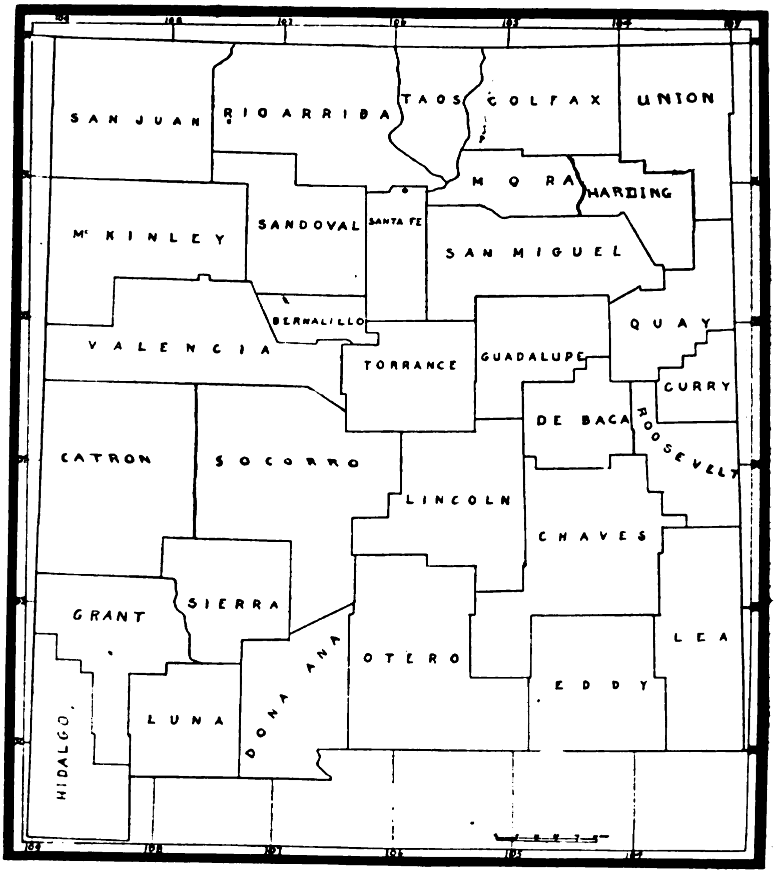
The ninth judicial district was created by the State Legislature March 11, 1921, taking to form the district Curry, De Baca and Roosevelt counties from the fifth district and Quay County from the eighth. McKinley County was changed from the second to the first district at the same time.


SAN JUAN
RIO ARRIBA
TAOS
COLFAX
UNION
MORA
M^c KINLEY
SANDOVAL
SANTA FE
SAN MIGUEL
BERNALILLO
VALENCIA
TORRANCE
GUADALUPE
QUAY
CURRY
ROOSEVELT
SOCORRO
LINCOLN
CHAVES
SIERRA
OTERO
EDDY
LUNA

NEW MEXICO COUNTIES IN 1910

Five new counties have been added since New Mexico became a State making the total number thirty-one. Although the majority of the counties of New Mexico are large compared with the states east of the Rocky Mountains it seems that the process of creating new political subdivisions of the State is about completed. The advantage of establishing new counties will be doubtful in the future. Two counties were created by the Legislature of 1917, one by the 1919 Legislature and two by the Legislature of 1921. De Baca County was organized from parts of

Chaves, Roosevelt and Guadalupe counties, February 28, 1917. Lea County was made from the eastern part of Chaves and Eddy counties, March 7, 1917. Hidalgo County was created from the southern part of Grant County, February 25, 1919. Catron County as established February 25, 1921, included the western part of Socorro County. The last political subdivision to be organized was Harding County which included the southern part of Union and the eastern part of Mora. The Legislature created the county March 4, 1921.


SAN JUAN
RIO ARRIBA
TAOS
COLFAX
UNION
MORA
HARDING
McKINLEY
SANDOVAL
SANTA FE
SAN MIGUEL
BERNALILLO
QUAY
VALENCIA
TORRANCE
GUADALUPE
CURRY
DE BACA
ROOSEVELT
CATRON
SOCORRO
LINCOLN
CHAVES
GRANT
SIERRA
DONA ANA
OTERO
LEA
EDDY
LUNA
HIDALGO

New Mexico Counties in 1925

The first United States Senators from New Mexico chosen by the State Legislature were: Albert Bacon Fall, republican, for the short term, and T. B. Catron, republican, for the long term. In the election of 1916 A. A. Jones, the democratic candidate, defeated Frank Hubbell. A. B. Fall was elected in the fall of

1918, defeating W. B. Walton, democrat. Fall resigned to become Secretary of the Interior in 1921 and the governor of New Mexico appointed H. O. Bursum. In the special election held September 20, 1921, H. O. Bursum, republican, was successful in defeating R. H. Hanna, democratic candidate. A. A. Jones was re-elected in the fall of 1922, defeating S. B. Davis, Jr., republican. Sam G. Bratton, democrat, defeated H. O. Bursum in the election of 1924.

New Mexico elected two representatives to the United States Congress in the fall of 1911, H. B. Fergusson, democrat, and George Curry, republican, defeating Elfego Baca and Paz Valverde. In 1912 the representation of New Mexico was cut to one. In that year H. B. Fergusson defeated the republican candidate, Nathan Jaffa. B. C. Hernandez, republican, defeated H. B. Fergusson in 1914. W. B. Walton, the democratic nominee, was elected in 1916, defeating B. C. Hernandez. Two years later B. C. Hernandez won over G. A. Richardson. In 1920 Nestor Montoya, republican, defeated Antonio Lucero, democrat. John Morrow, democrat, defeated the republican candidate, Adelina Otero Warren, in 1922 and Felipe Hubbell in 1924.

The constitution of New Mexico provided for eleven elective offices in the executive department of government, namely, govnor, lieutenant-governor, secretary of state, auditor, treasurer, attorney-general, commissioner of public lands, superintendent of public instruction and three corporation commissioners. There seems to be no valid reason for electing these officers beginning with the secretary of state, who are administrative officials, except the traditional development of State governments. In each case the office requires a highly trained technician and the work is *administrative* rather than *political*. All of these offices except those of lieutenant-governor and corporation commissioners existed in the Territorial period. The work of the corporation commissioners before 1912 was carried on by the United States Interstate Commerce Commission and by the secretary of the Territory. No change has been made in the elective offices of the government since 1911 although there has been some attempts to make the elective offices of commissioner of public lands, superintendent of schools and corporation commissioners appointive by the governor.

The method of collecting and disbursing public funds, regulating public utilities, insurance companies and state banks was changed by the constitution and has been altered since then by acts of the Legislature. Some of the officials connected with this phase of government are at present appointed by the governor and some elected by the people. The constitution created a commission of three members giving them control over public utilities and the licensing of domestic and foreign corporations. The law of June 12, 1912, further fixed the powers of the commission. The burden of proof for all acts of the commission is imposed upon that body, which fact tends to abridge its power.

The two offices of traveling auditor and bank examiner, and superintendent of insurance were continued after 1911 to audit the accounts of county officials and to regulate banks and insurance companies. The duties of the bank examiner were made a separate office March 15, 1915. The office of superintendent of insurance was abolished March 3, 1921, and the work added to that of the bank examiner. These officers were appointed by the governor although the traveling auditor between 1915 and 1921 was appointed by the state auditor.

State control over assessing and collecting taxes was limited until 1915 to the activity of the State Board of Equalization which had too limited authority and funds to effectively correct the errors of county officials. The first step toward the creation of a more equitable system of taxation was taken March 12, 1915, when a state tax commission was created by the Legislature. The act provided for a commission of five members appointed by the governor, appropriated $12,000 for the work, gave the commission power to determine value of property of railroads, telegraph and telephone companies, and authorized it to act as a board of equalization and check county assessments. The organization and powers of the State Tax Commission were changed March 15, 1919. The new commission consisted of three members instead of five, appointed by the governor for six years instead of two. The chief tax commissioner was given a salary of $3,600 instead of $10 a day limited to ninety days. The two associate commissioners received $10 a day for not more than 120 days. The annual appropriation was increased from $12,000 to $40,000.

The special session of the Legislature in 1920 created a special revenue commission to investigate the revenue system of the State. The recommendations of this commission were embodied in House Bill Number 100, introduced into the House in 1921. This bill failed and in its place was passed the Committee Substitute for House bill Number 100 which omitted the provision abolishing the county assessors' offices and placing all assessment making under officials appointed by the tax commission, and the provision for a state income tax by which funds were to be created for the increased activity of the tax commission. The act made an appropriation for the valuation of mining properties and gave the commission power to use the valuation as the basis of assessment.

Other changes made in the financial machinery were the creation of the board of finance, March 18, 1915, composed of the governor, auditor and treasurer with general supervision over the fiscal affairs of the State; the establishment of the office of educational auditor, March 14, 1921, who was given the power to investigate, revise and approve the county school budgets; and the creation of the office of comptroller, March 7, 1923. The office of educational auditor and that of traveling auditor were abolished and the duties of these officers made a part of the work of the comptroller. The issuing of motor vehicle licenses was transferred from the secretary of state to the new office and control of the administration of the gasoline tax was taken from the auditor and given to the comptroller. The governor appointed the comptroller.

At present the corporation commission regulates corporations and the bank examiner inspects and controls banks and insurance companies. The tax commission controls assessments and the comptroller collects for the motor vehicle licenses and gasoline tax, approves school budgets and audits the accounts of county officials. The system seems to work better than the earlier organization.

The Board of Loan Commissioners was created June 1, 1912, consisting of the attorney-general, the treasurer and the auditor. This board was given authority to determine the Territorial and county debts and issue bonds for payment or refunding of the debt assumed by the state. Three series of bonds were authorized.

The Girls' Welfare Board was established March 15, 1919, consisting of five members, appointed by the governor, who were given control over the Girls' Welfare Home which was located at Albuquerque. Incorrigible girls were sent by the courts to this institution.

The Child Welfare Board was created by the Legislature March 17, 1919, for the purpose of protecting and caring for children. The board consisted of six members appointed by the governor. The Child Welfare Board was abolished March 11, 1921, and the work was placed under the Board of Public Welfare created at the time.

The Board of Public Welfare consisting of five members was given authority to establish a bureau of public health and a bureau of child welfare. This law resulted in the establishing of a health department in control of full time employes. Under the director of public health four divisions were provided for, namely: the division of vital statistics, the division of sanitation, the division of public health nursing, and the division of public health laboratory. The bureau of child welfare was placed under a director, responsible to the Board of Public Welfare.

The Territorial professional examining boards were retained when New Mexico became a State in 1912 and some additional ones have been created. The Board of Examining Surveyors was established by an act of the Legislature passed March 13, 1917. The board consisted of three members, the state engineer and two other persons appointed by the governor. They were to have control of the licensing of surveyors. The work of the Board of Health and Medical Examiners was divided and given to two boards in 1919, the Board of Medical Examiners and the Board of Health. The Board of Chiropractic Examiners for the licensing of chiropractic practitioners was provided for in a law, March 11, 1921, which was composed of three chiropractors appointed by the governor. The board was given power to hold examinations and issue licenses to persons qualified to practice chiropractic. The Board of Accountancy consisting of three accountants appointed by the governor was created March 14, 1921, with power to hold examinations and bestow the title of Certified Public Accountant. The Board of Nurse Examiners made up of five members appointed by the governor was established February 13, 1923, and was given the power to examine and license trained nurses.

Under the laws creating examining boards the following persons must be licensed: lawyers, doctors, osteopaths, chiropractors, pharmacists, optometrists, embalmers, trained nurses, teachers, certified accountants and surveyors.

The office of inspector of mines was created June 13, 1912. The inspector of mines before statehood had been a federal official under the law of 1891 which provided for the protection of the lives of coal miners. The State law created a Board of Examiners consisting of the governor, the state engineer and the president of the School of Mines, who were authorized to examine all applicants. The governor was given power to appoint the Inspector of Mines from those who qualified in the examination.

The Game and Fish Department was established by a law passed February 28, 1921, which provided for the appointment by the governor of three members, who were given the power to make rules and regulations for the preservation of game and fish. As in the past the law provided for the appointment of the game and fish warden by the governor.

The State Highway Commission until March 9, 1917, consisted of the governor, commissioner of public lands and the state engineer, who was the active head of the highway work. From that date the Highway Commission consisted of three members appointed by the governor with the power to appoint the highway engineer. This act repealed the law of June 10, 1912, which had provided for county road boards of three members and created county highway superintendents, who were appointed by the Highway Commission as the county road boards had been.

The Rio Grande Commission was created March 12, 1917, and was composed of the state engineer and two other members appointed by the governor for the purpose of investigating the irrigation and drainage of the Rio Grande Valley and to consult with Colorado and Texas officials concerning the disposal of the waters of the Rio Grande. The act of March 12, 1923, provided for the appointment of a commissioner with power to negotiate an agreement for New Mexico with the States of Colorado and Texas relative to the use of the waters of the Rio Grande.

Two commissioners were appointed under laws passed March 11 and March 12, 1921; the one, to represent New Mexico in the negotiation of an agreement between the states interested in the waters of the Colorado River and the United States concerning the distribution of the waters of that river; and the other, to make an agreement for New Mexico with Colorado concerning the use of the waters of the La Plata River. A commissioner to negotiate an agreement between New Mexico, Texas and the United States concerning the distribution and storage of the waters of the Pecos River was appointed by the governor under an act passed March 8, 1923.

The Board of Water Commissioners who had charge of deciding disputes arising from water rights was abolished February 28, 1923, and the duties of this board were assigned to the district courts.

The office of legal adviser to the governor was provided for in a law passed June 11, 1912. The governor was given power to appoint the officer and remove him at any time. The office was abolished February 2, 1921.

The New Mexico Mounted Police was abolished by the legislature February 15, 1921. The duties of this force became a part of the work of the county police officers.

Since the adoption of the Constitution of the State of New Mexico in 1911, ten amendments have been made to the document by the people of the state. Article XXI entitled "Compact with the United States" was changed by omitting that part of section five which required all state officers and members of the state legislature to carry on their work without the aid of an interpreter. This change was made at the general election November 5, 1912, for the purpose of allowing men who spoke only Spanish to hold state offices.

Three amendments were passed at the general election November 3, 1914, two of which related to the term of office of public officials and the other to taxation. The constitution as originally adopted provided in Article V, Section One, that the executive officers, except commissioner of public lands and superintendent of public instruction, should be elected for a term of four years and be ineligible for the succeeding four years. The amendment provided that the state executive officers should be elected for a term of two years, and be ineligible for two years after having been elected for two consecutive terms. Article X, Section two, of the original constitution fixed the term of office for elected county officials at four years and made them ineligible for re-election until four years after the expiration of their term of office, except the county clerk and the probate judge. The amended section required that the county officers should be elected for a term of two years, and made them ineligible for a period of two years after having held the office for two consecutive terms. Article VIII of the constitution was revised and six sections of the thirteen were omitted. In the revised article, sections relating to the kinds of taxes that could be levied and to the Board of Equalization were dropped. It was also provided that all taxes should be levied in proportion to value of the property.

Two amendments were passed at the general election, November 6, 1917. One of these provided for adding Article XXIII to the constitution, which made it illegal to manufacture; for sale, gift, or barter intoxicating liquors after the first day of October, 1918. Article XII, Sections twelve and twenty-five, were changed in such a manner that there were nine judicial districts in the state instead of eight as provided in the original constitution.

Three changes were made in the constitution at a special election held September 20, 1921. Section sixteen was added to Article IX, providing for the issuing of highway debentures not to exceed $2,000,000, notwithstanding the fact that this issue increased the state indebtedness beyond the limit of one per cent as fixed by the constitution of the assessed valuation of the property. Article VIII, Section five, of the constitution as originally drawn, provided an exemption from taxation of $200 worth of property for all heads of families. To this was added the exemption from taxation of $2,000 worth of property of all those who, at any time, served officially in the forces of the United States. The exemption also applied to widows of all who had been in the service. Article II, Section twenty-two, of the original constitution gave equal property rights to aliens. The amended section provided that until otherwise determined by law, aliens who are ineligible to citizenship shall not acquire title, leasehold or other interest in real estate in New Mexico.

Article II, Section fourteen, of the constitution was amended at the general election November 4, 1924. The amended section so changed the original that indictments for capital, felonious or infamous crimes may be made either by the district attorney or the grand jury. Under the original section a grand jury was necessary in such cases.

Taxation during the period from 1911 to 1924 increased rapidly with the development of government activities. The constitution of the state after November 3, 1914, required that property be assessed at full value, but this has never been done except in the case of railroad, bank, telegraph and telephone corporations which have been assessed since 1915 by the State Tax Commission. The total assessed valuation was advanced from $72,457,454 in 1910 to $404,825,217 in 1920 and reduced $75,000,000 in the following two years. The average tax rate increased from $16.50 per $1,000 valuation in 1917 to $29.71 in 1921. The decreasing valuation created a serious problem as it was not possible to increase the rate. The assessing of property has been considered defective. During the territorial period the assessment was made at one-fifth of the value. This was gradually increased until the general system adopted by assessors has been to place the assessment at fifty per cent of the value. The State Tax Commission in 1922 believed that at least

$50,000,000 worth of property was not taxed from one cause or another. It was further believed that the assessing of property at full value would add $150,000,000 to the total assessment, and bring about a just distribution of the burden of taxation through a reduction of the tax rate. The Special Revenue Commission in 1920 proposed to place all the assessing of property under the State Tax Commission and to introduce a state income tax, but these changes were not made. With the continuation of low prices for cattle, the assessed valuation of property has continued during 1923 and 1924 to decrease. In some instances where assessments have been found defective, re-assessments have been made by the State Tax Commission as in the case of Guadalupe County. No solution has as yet been adopted for remedying the inequalities of assessments and the high rate of taxation. The state debt, including all sub-divisions, has increased from $6,000,000 in 1915 to $18,000,000 in 1921. Total state and subdivision expenditures for the same period increased from $6,348,832 to $15,160,968. The value of mineral productions in 1910 was $13,565,006 and in 1910 it was $25,464,072. Farm property in 1910 was valued at $159,447,990 and in 1920 at $325,185,999. Livestock increased in value from $43,494,679 in 1910 to $93,626,418 in 1920. It is hardly necessary to call attention to the fact that these increases in the value of products were not primarily due to the increase of property but to the decrease in the value of the dollar.

The New Mexico National Guard, consisting of the First Infantry, Battery "A" and the Sanitary Detachment, was called into federal service and reported for duty at Columbus, New Mexico, on May 12, 1916. These forces numbering 779 were the first of the militia to arrive on the Mexican border following the raid of Francisco Villa on Columbus, New Mexico, March 9, 1916.

The Mexican leader's hatred of Americans and determination to attack border towns was due to the recognition of the Carranza government by the United States, October 19, 1915. The raid on Columbus was preceded by the killing of eighteen Americans on January 10, 1916, at Santa Ysabel, Chihuahua, by Villa supporters.

The night attack on Columbus, New Mexico, which was made from Boca Grande, Chihuahua, by Villa and 583 men, resulted in the death of seventeen Americans and a larger number of Mexicans. Soldiers stationed in the vicinity were caught off their guard and the assault continued for some two hours before three troops of the Thirteenth Cavalry drove the raiders across the border. The next day President Wilson announced that a force would be sent in pursuit of Villa and also that the sovereignty of Mexico would be respected.

This situation raised a point in international law, namely, under what circumstances does the principle of inviolability of territory yield to the right of self-defense. The Pershing Expedition crossed into Mexico without formal notice to the Mexican government. In negotiations that followed both at Washington and on the frontier, Mexico insisted that the forces sent in pursuit of Villa be withdrawn. Secretary of State Lansing in answering the Mexican complaint stated that there was not time for negotiating an agreement because "immediate action alone could avail." The Mexican government issued orders in June to permit no movement of the American forces except in a northerly direction. An American detachment moving eastward from its base had an encounter with Mexican troops at Carrizal, Chihuahua, June 22, 1916, in which in addition to several on each side being killed, seventeen Americans were captured. The United States demanded the release of the prisoners and a crisis was prevented by Mexico agreeing to surrender the captives. A joint commission was later appointed but failed to reach an agreement. Meanwhile the American forces were gradually withdrawn from Mexico.

The New Mexico National Guard which on November 30, 1916, numbered 973, continued in federal service until April 5, 1917, when all were mustered out except those who had taken the federal oath under the National Defense Act of June 3, 1916. Under these circumstances the New Mexico National Guard was called into Federal service on April 21, 1917, two weeks after the United States declared war on Germany. The force at this time consisted of forty-nine officers and thirty-nine enlisted men.

The first task was to recruit the National Guard units up to full war strength. This work was undertaken in the latter part of April by Adjutant General James Baca and Colonel E. C. Abbott with the result that the National Guard numbered 1,300 on June 1, 1917, when it was mobilized at Albuquerque. The troops were trained at the camp until transferred. The First Infantry and the Sanitary Detachment were ordered to Camp Kearny, near San Diego, California, where a number of men were placed in the One Hundred Forty-third and One Hundred Forty-fourth Machine Gun companies. Battery "A" was sent to Camp Greene, North Carolina, on September 25, 1917. There it became a part of the One Hundred Forty-sixth Field Artillery. During the last part of the year Battery "A" of 190 men under Capt. Charles M. de Bremond, was sent to France and was one of the batteries engaged at Chateau Thierry at the beginning of the attack upon the German lines in the fall of 1918, which brought the World war to a close. The divisions which contained a number of the New Mexico National Guard were the Eighty-ninth, which went to France in June, 1918, and the Fortieth (Sunshine Division) which was sent to Europe in September.

New Mexicans in the service during the World war in addition to the National Guard included 1,250 who enlisted in the navy; 4,000 who volunteered for service in the army; and 8,505 who were called into service under the draft law between September, 1917, and October, 1918. The total number of New Mexicans serving during the war has been placed at 15,500. On December 1, 1917, New Mexico ranked fifth among the states in proportion of volunteers to population. The total registration of men in New Mexico between June 5, 1917, and August 24, 1918, was 79,911.

The State Council of Defense was the body which directed the war work as the agent for the state councils section of the Council of National Defense. The work was carried on through county and community defense councils and other agencies. The State Council of Defense which was created by an act of the legislature May 8, 1917, consisted of nine members appointed by the governor. The same act appropriated $750,000 to be used by the council under the direction of the governor. The members of the State Council of Defense were Secundino Romero, chairman; B. C. Hernandez, C. R. Brice, Eufracio Gallegos, Charles Springer, W. A. Hawkins, E. M. Otero and J. M. Sully. It was soon found that an executive committee would be necessary to carry on the work. The governor appointed Charles Springer chairman, B. C. Hernandez and C. R. Brice as the members of this committee. The officers acting immediately under the State Council of Defense were the general secretary, the disbursing agent, the field agent, the publicity director, the medical director, and the educational and labor director.

The agencies were created by the State Council of Defense as the work progressed. County financial agents were appointed in May, 1917, to take care of the distribution of seeds to farmers by the State Council on credit. According to the report of the disbursing agent, May 31, 1918, the largest item of expense was loans to farmers which amounted to $59,934. The county councils of defense were organized in July, 1917, as local representatives of the State Council. Motor Minute Men were appointed to furnish transportation for local war work. War service committees were appointed December 15, 1917, in each district for the purpose of carrying out war activities in the sub-divisions of the counties. These formed the foundation for the Community Councils which were organized in March, 1918, and took the place of the war service committees. The publicity department of the State Council created May 22, 1917, began the publication of an official weekly bulletin called the *New Mexico War News* on July 10, 1917. A semi-monthly Spanish edition of the paper was first published on July 15, 1918. Other agencies for carrying on the work conducted through the State Council were the County Agricultural Agents, the United States Biological Survey, the Board of Historical Service, the Speakers' Bureau, the Four Minute Men, the State Knitting Committee, the County Legal Committees, the State Legal Committee, the Women's Committee and the Highways Transport Committee.

In the campaigns for funds and sales of bonds the state war work organizations were effective. The Y. M. C. A. and the Y. W. C. A. subscriptions in 1917 amounted to $65,603. New Mexico's quota for the United War Work Fund was $204,600. Between September 1 and November 11, 1918, there was subscribed for this fund $286,153. In each of the four Liberty Bond campaigns the quota was exceeded. The total of New Mexico's quota was $11,372,900 and the total purchase of Liberty Bonds amounted to $17,952,400.

CHAPTER XXIX

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OF NEW MEXICO, 1912-1925

Railroad building was unimportant in the period between 1912 and 1925. The small mileage increase was due to the building of a few branch lines. In 1924 a line from San Felipe to the Hagan coal mines, a distance of fifteen miles, was completed. This road makes connection with the Santa Fe system at San Felipe. A railroad of more importance was started in 1924 which was constructed during the year for a distance of about forty miles up the Jemez Valley from the junction with the Santa Fe Railroad at Bernalillo in Sandoval County. It is proposed to continue this road to Farmington in the San Juan Valley. In case this line is completed it will be the first railroad of more than 100 miles in length built in New Mexico since the Santa Fe Railroad constructed the line from Clovis to Belen in 1907.

Applications have been made to the Interstate Commerce Commission for the building of a railroad from north to south through Western New Mexico but thus far these have been refused by that body.

The New Mexico Central Railroad has applied for the right to extend its line from Santa Fe up the Chama Valley and to the San Juan Valley, but this request has also been refused by the Interstate Commerce Commission. These plans for the extension of the railroad system of New Mexico have been rejected by the Commission on the ground that there is no demand for the lines and no resources to justify the expense of building the railroads. Recently the Interstate Commerce Commission has been criticized by state officials and others for its position. The history of the State seems to show that its development is closely connected with the increase of railroad mileage.

An important change in ownership of railroads in New Mexico took place in 1924 when the Southern Pacific Railroad took over the Rock Island Railroad's lines in New Mexico. The Southern Pacific Railroad built 168 miles of line in New Mexico in 1881, but made no further gains until 1924. With this change there are at present four interstate and one intrastate railroads operating in New Mexico. These are: The Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railroad with 1,473 miles; the Southern Pacific Railroad with 1,134 miles; the Denver and Rio Grande Western Railroad with 236 miles; the Colorado and Southern Railroad with 83 miles; and the New Mexico Central Railroad, which has 116 miles.

The construction of a system of highways and bridges marks one of the most important developments since statehood. During the period before the railroads the Legislature authorized the construction of a number of toll roads and bridges. Mail routes in 1873 had a total length of 1,800 miles which in many cases went over the mountains. It was not uncommon for these highways to be impassable. Some aid was given in the early period by the Federal Government in the construction of roads that were needed for military purposes. The Territorial Legislature passed an act, February 1, 1872, establishing a system of public highways, but the act was ineffective on account of the absence of funds. Twelve roads were declared public highways prior to 1878.

Several laws were passed relating to highways between 1879 and 1911. The county commissioners, March 1, 1882, were given authority to establish public roads and were also given complete control over highways by the act of the Legislature passed February 26, 1889. This act provided also that all able bodied men should annually do not more than five nor less than two days work on the roads; that there should be a tax for roads of one-half mill on the assessed valuation of property; and that there should be a supervisor appointed for each precinct. The road tax was increased to one and one-half mill by an act of March 19, 1903. The same Legislature, March 14, 1903, passed an act making all post roads public highways. *El Camino Real* was established by the Legislature February 10, 1905. It extended from Raton to Anthony, fifteen miles north of El Paso. The construction was to be under the Board of Penitentiary Commissioners and convict labor was to be used. The law provided an appropriation of $10,000 for building the highway. The Territorial Road Commission, consisting of the governor, the commissioner of public lands and the engineer, was created March 16, 1909, with the authority to construct and maintain all highways and bridges built by the Territory, to build *El Camino Real,* to co-operate with the counties, and to cause to be levied a tax of one mill on the assessed valuation of all property for the purpose of creating a Territorial road fund.

Very little had been accomplished in road building prior to 1912 as compared with the work that has been done since that time. The act of June 10, 1912, changed the name of the Territorial Road Commission to that of State Highway Commission, but did not change the organization of the commission. County road boards of three members appointed by the State Highway Commission were created at this time, but were later abolished and the county work placed under the county commissioners. State highways, declared to be such by the Legislature, increased rapidly in the period following 1912. *El Camino Real,* established February 10, 1905, was the only highway taken over from the Territorial period. Between 1912 and 1923 the Legislature passed eighty acts designating certain roads as state highways.

There were 6,540 miles of these highways in 1918 and 7,587 in 1920, the major portion of which were unimproved roads. The improved highways which in 1918 amounted to 3,911 miles, have probably more than doubled since that time.

The United States Congress passed an act July 11, 1916, providing for aid to the States in the construction of rural post roads. Under this law 973 miles of road have been constructed at a total cost of $6,000,000, the Federal Government paying one-half and the state and counties the other half. The National Forest Service in the period between 1912 and 1923 constructed in New Mexico 294 miles of roads and 871 miles of trails at a total cost of $1,383,087.

The State Highway Commission was re-organized by a law passed March 9, 1917, which authorized the governor to appoint three highway commissioners who were given the power to appoint a highway engineer or to appoint the state engineer to fill the place. The first bonds for highway building were issued July 1, 1913, amounting to $500,000, which was followed September 20, 1921, by a bond issue of $2,000,000, the question having been submitted to the people as a constitutional amendment. In addition to the $4,000,000 spent on New Mexico roads since 1912 by the Federal Government through the Bureau of Roads and the Forest Service, the state and counties spent more than $9,000,000 on roads between 1915 and 1921. These expenditures have resulted in great improvements in the roads of the state, but also a heavy increase in the burden of taxation.

State and Federal aid have required county participation in the building of highways. The result is that the highway development has radiated from the county seats. The wealthy counties have been more able to contribute and have procured a larger mileage of improved roads than the weaker counties. This manner of development has also tended to create groups of roads in counties rather than highways connecting the most important centers, but in the end a more complete system will be created than if all the building were concentrated on the main interstate highways.

A large number of national highways cross New Mexico which has an effect of making highway building more popular for no state desires to gain the reputation of being one to be avoided. Twenty national highways are in part in New Mexico. The National Old Trails passes through Raton, Las Vegas, Santa Fe, Albuquerque and Gallup with a southern branch from Socorro to Springerville, Arizona. The Lee, Postal, Dixie Overland and Bankhead highways enter the State at Clovis and pass through Roswell, Alamogordo, El Paso, Deming and Lordsburg. The Atlantic and Pacific highway runs from Tucumcari to Socorro and from there to Deming and Lordsburg. The Buffalo, Puget Sound to the Gulf and the Colorado to the Gulf highways cross the northeastern corner of New Mexico from Raton to Clayton. The National Park to Park highway runs from Farmington through Gallup to Zuñi in the northwestern part of New Mexico. Among the other national highways are the New Santa Fe Trail, the Apache Trail, the Lone Star Trail, Southwestern Trails, the Abo Pass highway and the Southern National highway.

The increased production of gold, silver, copper, zinc, lead and coal between 1912 and 1917 and the falling off in production since that time is shown in the following table:

	Total Dollars Thous.	Gold Ounces Thous.	Silver Ounces Thous.	Copper Pounds Thous.	Lead Pounds Thous.	Zinc Pounds Thous.	Coal Tons Thous.
1912	13,565	784	1,355	34,031	5,494	13,567	3,536
1917	42,352	1,064	1,394	105,568	9,108	30,200	4,000
1920	23,796	463	764	54,000	2,600	11,840	3,690
1923	22,578	551	747	61,000	3,832	16,496	3.150 est.
1924	23,434	521	839	73,900	4,800	20,000	3,150 est.

(Coal value estimated for 1923 and 1924 at $11,000,000.)

Open Pit Mining, Santa Rita

The mining districts of New Mexico were appraised by J. R. Finlay in 1921 for the purpose of determining the value for taxation. Fifty-two of the districts were found to be of no value. There were only nine companies carrying on profitable metal mining operations and ninety per cent of the value was in the production of the copper mining of the Chino Copper Company and the Burro Mountain Branch of the Phelps Dodge Corporation.

The fact that a district was appraised as of no value in 1921 does not mean that at some future time rich discoveries might not be made, but even though it were known and they were not developed they would have no more value than an undeveloped quarry of building stone. The same is true of the vast undeveloped coal lands of New Mexico.

There have been instances in New Mexico of the revival of a mining district, but these discoveries in old mining districts are exceptional. The Aztec mine in the Elizabethtown District of western Colfax County was one of the cases of a mine which produced heavily after a long period of no production. Between 1868 and 1874 more than a million dollars in gold was mined. Rich deposits were discovered in 1915 from which were taken out $1,940,000 in gold in five years. In 1920 the mine was worked at a loss of $120,000 and since that time it has not been operated.

The value of metal mining operations in 1921 was about twice that put on coal mining companies as may be seen by comparing the two tables.

Name	Value of Operations in Thousands of Dollars
Chino Copper Company	$15,000
Phelps Dodge Corporation	3,200
Empire Zinc Company, Hanover	840
Hanover Bessemer Iron and Copper Company	250
Eight-Five Mine	250
Mogollon Mines Company	33
Confidence Mine	20
Deadwood Mine	5
Mines and Metal Company	5

The total value of metal mining operations in 1921 was placed at $19,603,000.

The following table shows the amount of coal mined between 1911 and 1920 in New Mexico by the principal companies, the profit or loss, and the value of mining operations in 1921:

Name of Company	Tons, Thous.	Profits, Thous.	Value of Mining Operations, Thous.
St. Louis, Rocky Mountain and Pacific Company	15,728	$7,363	$5,330
Phelps Dodge Corporation	12,666	3,128	3,212
Diamond Coal Company	1,847	179	170
Albuquerque and Cerrillos Coal Company	1,043	47	123
Carthage Fuel Company	463	51	19
Gallup Southwestern Coal Company	246	120	133
B. H. Kinney	167	102	89
Defiance Coal Company	93	35	130

Gallup American Coal Company	1,283	1,196*	270
Cherokee and Pittsburg Coal Company	----	----	87
Mutual Light and Power Company	----	----	19
A. Luchetti	----	----	12

*Loss.

The total valuation placed on coal mining operations in 1921 was $9,610,965.

The live stock industry of New Mexico between 1912 and 1923 increased in value until 1920 on the strength of the high price level, and after that year decreased in value without a corresponding drop in the price level.

The following table gives the value of all live stock, the number of cattle and sheep and the wool clip for the years 1910, 1920 and 1923:

	Live Stock Value	Cattle	Sheep	Wool Clip in Pounds
1910	$43,495,000	1,095,000	3,759,000	16,994,000
1920	93,626,000	1,300,000	1,867,000	8,301,000
1923	53,000,000	1,220,000	2,062,000	10,890,000

The number of cattle increased slightly, while the number of sheep and the amount of wool decreased about 50 per cent. The value of live stock increased more than 100 per cent between 1910 and 1920, and decreased about 50 per cent by 1923.

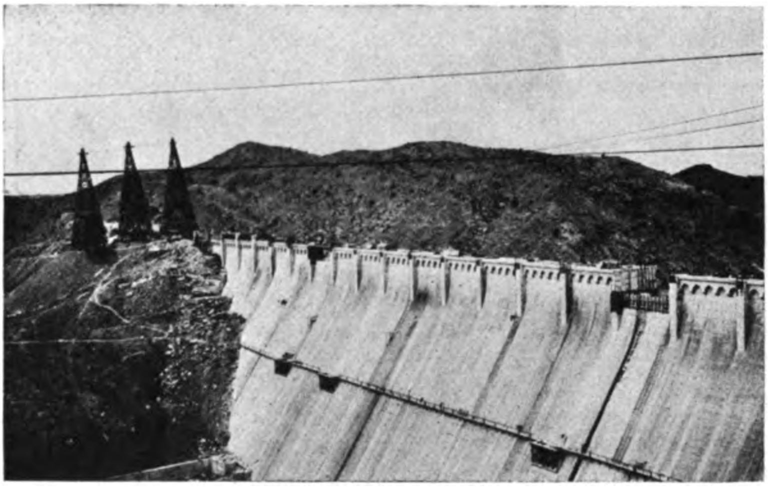
Irrigated lands in New Mexico were increased 50,000 acres during the years since 1912, making a total of 538,377 acres under irrigation in 1920. Some counties showed a gain in the period, while in others there was a decrease in the irrigated acreage. Colfax County had the largest increase, amounting to 33,000 acres; Dona Ana was second with 20,000 acres; Taos, third with an increase of 18,000 acres; and San Juan fourth, having an increase of 13,000 acres. Valencia, Grant, Socorro, Santa Fe and Mora counties had smaller amounts of irrigated lands in 1920 than in 1910.

The projects of the United States Reclamation Bureau, the Rio Hondo and the Carlsbad, were completed in 1907 and 1912. The Rio Hondo project proved an expensive failure, due to leakage in the storage reservoir. The bureau operated the project until April 1, 1917, when it was turned over to the Rio Hondo Reservoir Water Users' Association. The final statement in 1917 of the cost of the project placed the construction at $382,000, and the earnings at $10,000. The farmers were not successful in operating the storage reservoir.

The Carlsbad project, following its completion in 1912, has been continuously operated, the acreage under irrigation increasing from 16,000 acres in 1912 to 24,000 acres in 1922. On account of the rapid silting up and heavy leakage from the

McMillan Reservoir, investigations were carried on in 1921 and 1922 to determine the feasibility of supplementing the storage by constructing a dam at the Alamo Gordo site north of Fort Sumner. The investigations of the reservoir were favorable but the construction of the canals west of the Carlsbad Canal was found to be costly. The plans have not passed the investigation stage.

The New Mexico-Texas Rio Grande project was reported June 30, 1912, as 20 per cent completed. The work done prior to this time included the construction of the Leasburg Diversion Dam and the preliminary excavation for the foundation for the storage dam at Elephant Butte. During the following two years the work on the dam was continued and at the end of that time it was reported as 64 per cent completed. The massive structure, storing more than 2,639,000 acre-feet of water, was completed May 13, 1916. During the next year the Percha Diversion Dam was constructed. Sixty per cent of the entire project was completed June 30, 1917. The remaining work consisted of the building of canals and open drains. The storage feature of the project was entirely completed June 30, 1923, the canals 85 per cent finished, and the open drains 80 per cent completed.



ELEPHANT BUTTE DAM

The original cost estimate for the project was $7,000,000, including $750,000 for maintenance for ten years. The financial statement June 30, 1923, showed that $14,609,757 had been spent on the project. The United States appropriated $1,000,000 March 4, 1907, as its share to pay for the 60,000 acre-feet of water furnished Mexico under the treaty proclaimed January 16, 1907. No part of the burden of operation and maintenance was assumed by the United States. The land owners of New Mexico and Texas hold that the United States should assume an additional $1,000,000 of the cost of construction, since the original calculation was less than half the actual cost. It was further held that the owners under the project in New Mexico and Texas should receive $1,000,000 as compensation for assuming the cost of operation and maintenance of the project, which includes the delivery of 60,000 acre-feet of water annually to the Juarez Valley of Mexico. A bill providing for a credit of $1,000,000, and $1,000,000 for delivering the water perpetually to Mexico, passed the United States House of Representatives in March, 1923, but was not voted on in the Senate.

The United States Reclamation Bureau spent prior to June 30, 1923, the sum of $75,000 in the investigation of irrigation projects which have not yet been built. The Alamo Gordo, Peñasco and Urton Lake projects in the Pecos Valley, the La Plata project in the San Juan Valley, the Las Vegas project and the Middle Rio Grande project have all been studied. The recent investigations relate to the Alamo Gordo and the Middle Rio Grande projects.

EAGLES' NEST DAM

The Middle Rio Grande project would probably rival the New Mexico-Texas Rio Grande project in cost. The report on the project, which was completed in March, 1923, recommended the building of either one or two storage dams, one of which would be on the Rio Grande in Southern Colorado, and the other on the Chama River at El Vado. The diversion dams would be placed at San Felipe, Isleta and San Acacia. Canal systems, drains and river bank protection would form parts of the project. The estimated cost of the work was $10,000,000. Those who favor the project argue that the increased agricultural production and the protection against floods would justify the expense. The opponents take the opposite view.

The Eagle Nest Dam in Cimarron Canyon, in western Colfax County, was built in 1918 by the Springer Land and Irrigation Company. The dam is 140 feet in height and stores 80,000 acre-feet of water. The lands receiving water from this reservoir are: Twelve thousand acres of the Antelope Valley Irrigation Company; 8,000 acres of the Springer Ditch Company; and 10,000 acres of the Cimarron Valley Land and Irrigation Company.

Other projects developed in recent times include the Lake Charette Land and Irrigation Company's system on the Ocaté River, which was completed in 1918; the Las Vegas project, completed in 1922, and the Costilla project, in Taos County, which was about half finished in 1918.

Applications for water numbering 1,543 were made to the state engineer between 1907 and 1922. A large majority of these were cancelled, rejected or withdrawn.

The statistics relating to agriculture show a rise in value between 1910 and 1920 and a sudden drop during the following three years:

	Land in Farms, Acres	Value	Value of Crops	Hay and Forage Acres	Hay and Forage Tons
1910----	11,270,000	$111,831,000	$ 8,620,000	371,000	434,000
1920----	24,410,000	221,814,000	40,620,000	437,000	694,000
1923----	---------	----------	26,100,000	158,000	232,000

The production of wheat and corn showed a large increase between 1910 and 1920, and a decrease in 1923. Barley and oats show a continuous increase in production:

—Wheat— Acres M.	—Wheat— Bu. M.	—Corn— Acres M.	—Corn— Bu. M.	—Oats— Acres M.	—Oats— Bu. M.	-Barley- Acres M.	-Barley- Bu. M.	—Cotton— Acres	—Cotton— Bales
32	500	86	1,165	34	721	2	44	790	206
135	2,437	227	4,737	40	1,085	9	194	11,000	5,000
108	1,300	221	3,624	58	1,160	11	209	-----	----

The index number of all crop production for New Mexico and the United States for the years 1911 to 1923 was as follows:

	New Mexico	United States
1911-------------------------	104.3	90.6
1912-------------------------	91.0	107.7
1913-------------------------	83.6	93.3
1914-------------------------	110.0	102.3
1915-------------------------	100.3	108.0
1916-------------------------	86.0	95.1
1917-------------------------	84.6	102.0
1918-------------------------	96.2	104.3
1919-------------------------	104.3	99.8

1920	107.2	106.9
1921	95.6	91.7
1922	59.4	96.7
1923	87.7	96.1

It is evident that the smallest yield per acre for the period was in 1922. Other low production per acre years were 1913, 1916, 1917 and 1923. The years of large yield per acre were 1911, 1914, 1915, 1919 and 1920.

According to the report of the Forest Service June 30, 1924, the national forests of New Mexico were the following:

Forest	Gross Area in Acres	Date of Latest Change	Headquarters	
			Town	County
Datil	2,903,720	March 3, 1921	Magdalena	Socorro
Gila	1,638,053	March 3, 1921	Silver City	Grant
Lincoln	1,472,079	Dec. 2, 1919	Alamogordo	Otero
Santa Fe	1,394,118	June 16, 1923	Santa Fe	Santa Fe
Carson	1,125,910	June 16, 1923	Taos	Taos
Manzano	948,459	March 3, 1923	Albuquerque	Bernalillo
Coronado	129,152	June 6, 1917	Tucson, Arizona	
Total	9,611,491			

This table, when compared with the 1911 figures, shows that the area included in the national forests of New Mexico has been decreased more than 1,000,000 acres since the end of the territorial period and the number of forests decreased from ten to seven. The Datil and the Gila forests have been changed only slightly in area. The Lincoln and Alamo forests were combined under the name of Lincoln and the area decreased about 500,000 acres, accounting for half the territory taken from the national forests during the period. The Pecos and the Jemez forests were placed under a single administration, the name changed to the Santa Fe forest and the forest reduced by approximately 200,000 acres. The Manzano and the Zuñi forests were combined under the name of Manzano forest and cut down in size some 300,000 acres.

The Forest Service strives to eliminate the loss due to forest fires. During the six-year period from 1916 to 1922 there were 371 forest fires, which burned more than 110,034 acres and caused a loss amounting to $33,202. Lightning was the origin of 205 of the fires, camp fires of forty-eight, and smokers seventy-one. The extent burned varied—in seventy-three fires the area burned over was more than ten acres; in 149 fires the acreage was between one-fourth of an acre and ten acres; and in the remaining 149 the area burned was less than one-fourth of an acre in size.

The use of the forests as livestock range under a system of permits and fees was adopted to prevent the overstocking of the forests and to create a source of revenue for the protection and improvement of the national forests. The regulation of the cutting of timber was to maintain an indefinite annual yield. The annual productive capacity of the New Mexico National Forests was estimated in 1921 to be 80,000,000 board feet of lumber. The following table shows the production of timber and the use for range of the six national forests arranged according to amount of timber produced during 1921.

Name	Board Feet of Lumber	Sheep and Goats	Cattle and Horses
Carson	11,063,000	155,935	10,889
Santa Fe	5,812,000	78,422	9,683
Lincoln	3,173,000	17,005	33,481
Gila	2,383,000	19,415	56,055
Manzano	1,366,000	51,090	10,381
Datil	1,000,000	106,271	53,609

APPLE ORCHARD, ROSWELL

The income from the forests increased until 1919 and decreased in the following three years. The twenty-five per cent. of the gross receipts paid to the state amounted to $37,969 in 1912; $104,752 in 1919; and $46,775 in 1922. The total amount paid the state during the period 1912 to 1922 was $675,335.

The United States Congress passed an act August 10, 1912, which provided that ten per cent. of the gross receipts of the National Forests should be spent on the construction of roads and trails to facilitate the administration and protection of the forests. The road and trail fund for the New Mexico forests in 1912 was $11,850; in 1919, $31,145; and in 1922, $17,990. The total amount produced by the fund during the eleven years was $222,075.

Manufacturing in New Mexico increased when the railroads brought the territory in contact with the industrialized world. The railroad not only made possible the manufacturing, but also in their shops carried on the most important industrial enterprise. The following table shows the progressive increase since 1880.

Date	Number of Establishments	Number of Wage-earners	Value of Product
1880	144	557	$1,285,000
1890	127	849	1,516,000
1900	420	2,600	5,606,000
1910	313	4,143	7,898,000
1920	387	5,738	17,857,000

These figures seem to prove that the period of greatest development was between 1890 and 1910. The figures for 1920 show only a comparatively small increase over those for 1910. Not increase in production but decrease in the value of the dollar accounts in a large part for the augmented value of the manufactured product. However, there was a real increase in the products of the railroad shops in the decade between 1910 and 1920.

	Value of Products		Number of Wage-Earners	
	1910	1920	1910	1920
Railroad Shops	$2,251,000	$7,085,000	1,489	2,993
Thirty Miscellaneous Industries	1,986,000	3,806,000	750	772
Timber Products	2,162,000	2,971,000	1,475	1,286
Flour Mills	462,000	1,324,000	28	66
Printing	589,000	901,000	283	287
Bakeries	272,000	788,000	54	116
Ice	144,000	468,000	50	115
Albuquerque	1,288,000	3,445,000	587	1,283

This table shows an increase in the products of railroad shops about half of which was in Albuquerque. Flour mills, bakeries and ice show an increased production. The thirty miscellaneous industries employed only twenty-two more men in 1920 than in 1910. Printing and timber industries show an actual decrease when allowance is made for the change in the value of money. The actual increase in value of product between 1910 and 1920 on the 1910 value of money would probably be not more than $1,500,000.

National banks in New Mexico before the coming of the railroads in 1879 existed only in Santa Fe. The First National Bank of Santa Fe was organized in December, 1870, by L. B. Maxwell, who had owned the Maxwell Grant. In the following year it was re-organized with S. B. Elkins as president and W. W. Griffin as cashier. The Second National Bank of New Mexico located at Santa Fe was opened in 1872 and continued to operate until July 17, 1892, when it voluntarily went out of business.

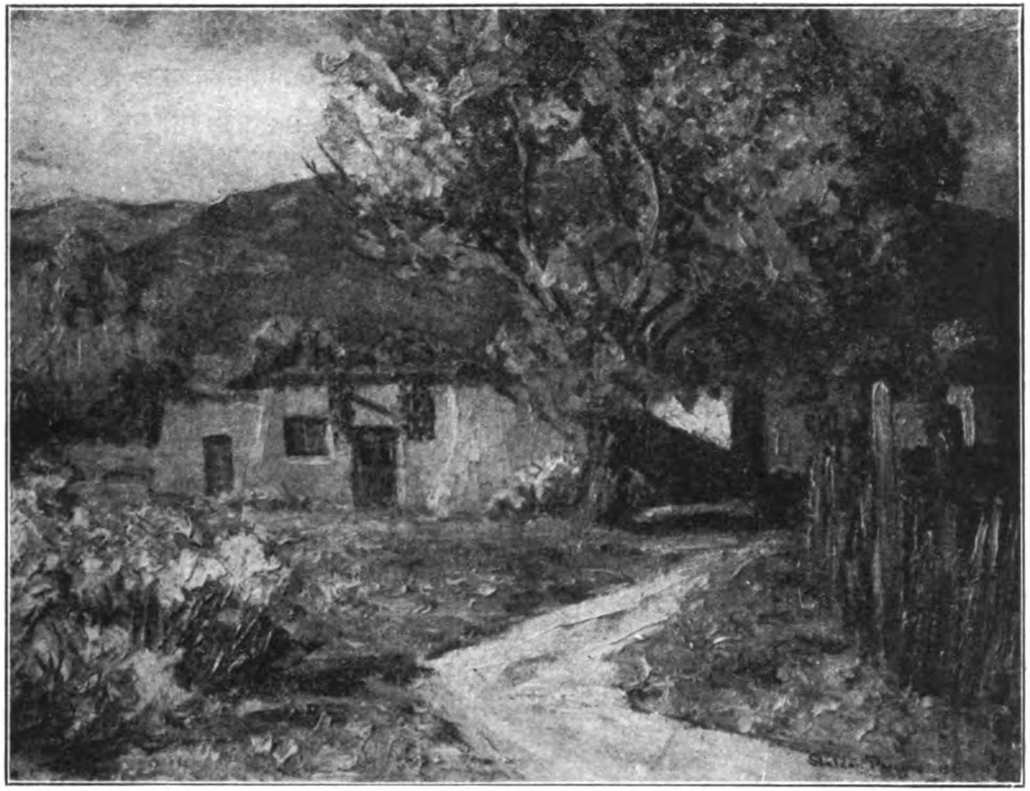


Photo by Museum Staff.

A NEW MEXICO HOME—PAINTING BY SHELDON PARSONS

In the period from 1879 to 1911 the increase in the number of national banks was small until 1900, but after that date many new organizations were chartered. The total number of national banks operating in New Mexico in 1900 was nine. In 1911 the state had forty-one national banks. The resources of the national banks increased from $1,068,000 in 1879 to $18,653,000 in 1911. The number of bank failures was comparatively small, there being five between 1892 and 1911. The First National Bank of Deming, which was organized April 22, 1884, failed February, 1892, due to fraudulent management and depreciation of securities. The First National Bank of Silver City, organized September 13, 1886, went into the hands of a receiver February 29, 1892. The cause for the failure was given as fraudulent management and depreciation of securities. The Albuquerque National Bank, chartered July 14, 1884, failed August 11, 1893, on account of injudicious banking and the depreciation of securities. The receivership was completed April 30, 1898. The First National Bank of Eddy (now Carlsbad), established October 31, 1890, was placed in the hands of a receiver on November 10, 1896. The failure was due to excessive loans and investments in real estate and mortgages. The First National Bank of Texico, founded March 18, 1906, closed voluntarily, but failing to liquidate was forced to accept the appointment of a receiver, September 5, 1911. The affairs of the bank were closed June 30, 1914.

During the years 1912 to 1915 six national banks were liquidated and two new banks were chartered leaving the total number in operation thirty-seven. The liquidated banks were: The First National Bank of Alamogordo, the Citizens National Bank of Alamogordo, the State National Bank of Artesia, Texico National Bank, the First National Bank of Cimarron, and the First National Bank of Lake Arthur. The new banks established were: The American National Bank of Tucumcari and the First National Bank of Magdalena.

Twelve national banks were chartered, three liquidated and one failed between 1915 and 1922, leaving forty-five in operation. The new banks were located in the following towns: Albuquerque, Carlsbad, Hot Springs, Carrizozo, Loving, Lovington, Mountainair, Cimarron, Clayton, Roy, Grady and Springer. The banks which liquidated were the American National Bank of Roswell, the San Miguel National Bank of Las Vegas and the Lakewood National Bank. The only national bank failure between 1911 and October, 1922, was the First National Bank of Hope, which went into the hands of the receiver October 30, 1922, due to the defalcation of the cashier. The total resources of the national banks in 1922 was $41,157,000, which was more than double the total resources in 1911.

A larger number of national banks failed during 1923 and 1924 than during the entire period of the existence of national banks in New Mexico prior to that time. The principal causes were: inability to realize on loans, shrinkage of deposits, withdrawals, large losses, insufficient credit and depleted resources. The total resources October 10, 1924, amounted to $28,916,000. The following banks were forced to close: First National Bank of Mountainair, November 2, 1922; First National Bank of Magdalena, January 18, 1923; First National Bank of Lovington, October 8, 1923; Citizens National Bank of Roswell, October 18, 1923; First National Bank of Deming, January 1, 1924; First National Bank of Clovis, January 8, 1924; State National Bank of Albuquerque, January 17, 1924; San Juan County National Bank of Farmington, February 12, 1924; First National Bank of Ft. Sumner, February 26, 1924; State National Bank of Carlsbad, August 24, 1924; National Bank of Carlsbad, February 6, 1924; Silver City National Bank, January 28, 1924; Citizens National Bank of Albuquerque, February 5, 1924; First National Bank of Clayton, February 25, 1924; and First National Bank of Carlsbad, May 10, 1924. The number of national banks operating in New Mexico on October 10, 1924, was thirty-three.

The first territorial banks were organized by Jefferson Raynolds, Frederick A. Raynolds and Joshua Raynolds in Las Vegas and Albuquerque. The Raynolds Brothers Bank in Las Vegas was organized in 1876, becoming the First National Bank of Las Vegas in 1880. The Central Bank of Albuquerque was founded in 1878 and a few years later was consolidated with the First National Bank of Albuquerque which since then has been controlled by the Raynolds' interests.

The first law regulating territorial banks was passed April 3, 1884. Three years later a law was enacted providing for the organization of savings banks and trust associations. Only three changes were made in the law between 1887 and 1903. These early laws did not require examination of the affairs of the banks by a territorial official, but the Secretary of the Territory was authorized to call for reports whenever he considered the same necessary to guard the interests of the public. It was not until 1903 that a law was passed providing for regular inspections of territorial banks and building and loan associations.

A large number of banking organizations were incorporated between 1880 and 1910. The total number of banks formed in this period was seventy-three. During the same time forty-nine trust companies and building and loan associations were incorporated.

In 1905 there were in existence thirteen banks incorporated under the territorial laws. Those having less than $25,000 capital stock were: Andrew Morton & Company, Springer; J. N. Broyles, San Marcial; Bank of Artesia; Citizens Bank of Aztec; Silver City Savings Bank; Plaza Trust and Savings Bank of Las Vegas. The banks having more than $25,000 capital stock were: Albuquerque Bank of Commerce; Bank of Deming; Exchange

Bank of White Oaks; Bank of Portales; Las Vegas Savings Bank; Sierra County Bank of Hillsboro; and the McKinley County Bank of Gallup.

During the fifteen years following 1905 the number of banks incorporated under the laws of New Mexico increased rapidly. The number reported in 1915 was forty-seven and in 1920 it was seventy-eight. The resources of these banks increased from $2,737,000 in 1905 to $27,295,000 in 1920.

The state banks were reduced in number between 1920 and 1925 due to inability to realize on loans and the falling off in the amount of deposits, which in turn were caused by the lack of rainfall and the low price of livestock. The number of banks was reduced as follows: January 1, 1920, seventy-eight; March 1, 1923, sixty-three; January 1, 1924, fifty; and January 1, 1925, forty-one.

Many changes were made in the state banks between 1920 and 1924. Banks went out of existence in some cases by consolidation, in some cases by failure and in others by liquidation. The Columbus State Bank failed November 4, 1920, and the Mountainair State Bank failed December 16, 1920. The First State Bank of Grenville failed March 2, 1921, but was able to re-open March 20, 1921. The Loving State Bank failed March 10, 1921. The Roy Trust and Savings Bank surrendered its charter April 18, 1921, and became the First National Bank of Roy. The Farmers and Merchants Bank of Nara Visa was absorbed July 28, 1921, by the First National Bank of Nara Visa. The Lordsburg State Bank failed July 30, 1921. The Union Bank of Las Cruces was purchased by the Bowman Bank and Trust Company on September 14, 1921. The First Territorial Bank of Lovington failed October 22, 1921. The Bank of Commerce of Taiban failed December 15, 1921. The Farmers State Bank of Mountainair was liquidated in 1921.

The number of changes in 1922 increased. The Encino State Bank failed January 17, 1922. The Bowman Bank and Trust Company of Las Cruces failed February 3, 1922. The Bank of Hatch changed its name to the Mesilla Valley Bank of Las Cruces February 4, 1922. The Citizens State Bank of Mountainair was absorbed February 21, 1922, by the First National Bank of Mountainair. The Estancia Savings Bank was merged with the Farmers and Stockmens Bank of Estancia April 1, 1922. The Farmers State Bank of Texico was absorbed April 10, 1922, by the Farwell National Bank of Farwell, Texas. On May 31, 1922, the First State Bank of Cloudcroft changed its charter and location, became the First State Bank of Alamogordo and absorbed the Alamo State Bank and the Peoples State Bank, both of Alamogordo. The New Mexico State Bank of San Antonio was consolidated June 16, 1922, with the Socorro State Bank. The First State Bank of Taos was organized June 24, 1922, and became the liquidating agent for the First National Bank of Taos. The Farmers State Bank of Maxwell was chartered June 30, 1922, and took over the affairs of the Farmers and Merchants State Bank of Maxwell. The Bank of Dedman changed its name November 22, 1922, to that of the Bank of Capulin. In 1923 this bank moved to Des Moines and the name changed to that of the State Bank of Des Moines.

In 1923 the number of state banks which closed was larger than in 1922. The Citizens Bank of Fort Sumner failed March 28, 1923. The Bank of Des Moines also failed on March 28, 1923. The Reserve State Bank failed April 2, 1923. The Capital City Bank of Santa Fe failed May 28, 1923. The McKinley County Bank of Gallup failed August 18, 1923. The Plaza Trust and Savings Bank of Las Vegas failed August 22, 1923. The Santa Fe Bank failed September 20, 1923. The Exchange Bank of Carrizozo closed its doors October 6, 1923. On October 8, 1923, the State Bank of Capitan failed. The Lincoln State Bank of Carrizozo failed October 29, 1923. The First State Bank of Alamogordo failed on November 28, 1923. The First State Bank and Trust Company of Roswell failed December 28, 1923. The Kenna Bank and Trust Company voluntarily liquidated December 28, 1923. The First State Bank of Tatum liquidated in 1923.

State banks continued to fail during the early months of 1924, but by June the crisis was passed and there have been few failures since that time. The State Trust and Savings Bank of Albuquerque failed on January 17, 1924. The Sierra County Bank of Hillsboro also failed on that day. The Silver City Savings Bank failed January 28, 1924. The Union Trust and Savings Bank of Clayton failed February 28, 1924. The Bank of Magdalena failed March 3, 1924. The Farmers and Stockmens Bank of Estancia failed November 20, 1924. The Colfax County State Bank of Springer was liquidated during 1924.

CHAPTER XXX.

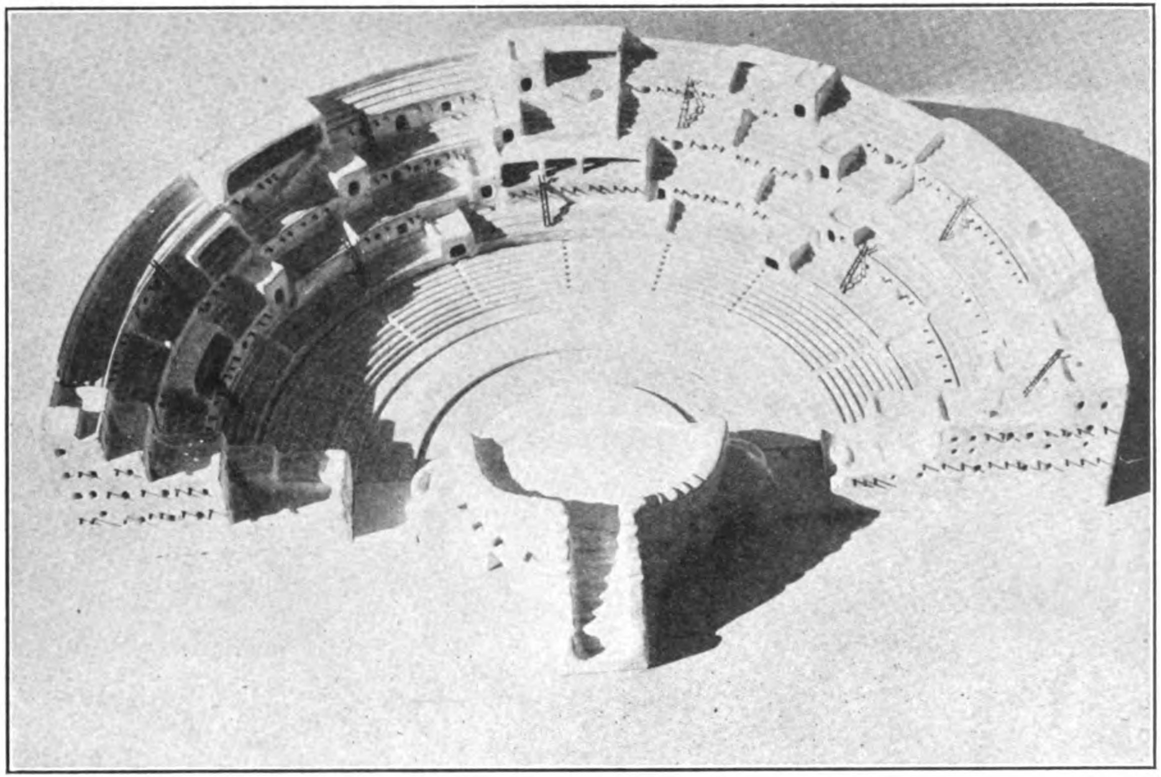
EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF NEW MEXICO, 1912-1925

The effectiveness of the public school system and of the other educational institutions was increased in this period. The instruction and equipment has improved and the enrollment of the schools has increased with an accompanying decrease in the per cent of illiteracy. Vocational education has received assistance from the Federal government. Rural schools have been assisted by the increase in state funds from school lands which have made possible the elimination of short school terms formerly common in a large number of the district schools. Thirty-seven laws have been passed since 1912 under which wide powers in school control and taxation are given to local communities, but this power is checked by an educational auditor who assists, advises and may dictate, in the making up of the annual school budget. The distinction between political and administrative officers is not recognized as the state superintendent of schools and the county superintendents are elected. On the other hand the State Board of Education and the county boards of education are appointive.

The recorded population of school age has increased from 100,000 in 1912 to 124,000 in 1923. During the same period the number of pupils enrolled in schools increased from 60,000 to 80,000. The total expense for the public grade and high schools was $954,000 in 1912 and $4,304,000 in 1922, with a decrease since that time. Teachers' salaries during these years increased from $623,000 to $2,105,000.

Illiteracy showed a decided decrease between 1910 and 1920. The population over the age of ten increased from 241,000 to 268,000 and the number of illiterate persons decreased from 49,000 to 42,000. The per cent of illiteracy dropped from 20.2 per cent in 1910 to 15.6 per cent in 1920.

The State University of New Mexico plant in 1912 consisted of an administration building, two dormitories, a power house, and several wooden structures including two gymnasiums and a dining hall. The science building burned down in 1910 and was replaced by a new science hall. Other structures erected since that time are: the chemistry, the engineering, the home economics, buildings; two extensions to the girls' dormitory; the remodeled power plant; the library and the radio station. The campus which prior to 1912 contained twenty-five acres



Proposed Santa Fe Fiesta Theater—Designed by R. Y. Gunther

was enlarged by the purchase of adjoining lands making the total area slightly more than 300 acres.

The school is divided into three colleges: arts and science, engineering and graduate school. The institution has had two presidents during the period, namely, D. R. Boyd and D. S. Hill who has held the position since 1919. The faculty increased from eighteen members in 1912 to twenty-five in 1925. Those who have been connected with the school during this period are: C. E. Hodgin, Josephine Parsons, J. D. Clark and L. B. Mitchell. Two members of the board of regents have served since 1912, namely: Nathan Jaffa and J. A. Reidy.

The enrollment in 1912 was ninety-nine, a part of which was in the high school department. The registration in the fall of 1924 was 365 college students, the high school department having been discontinued in 1919. The University in 1923 was accredited by the Commission on Higher Education of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. This is important because it means that the school has met certain high educational requirements.

The state support in the form of an annual appropriation has increased from $45,000 in 1912 to $97,500 in 1925. The income from University lands which was $3,500 in 1912 has averaged $48,000 annually for the six years from 1919 to 1924.

The New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts in 1912 offered courses of high school grade, conducted a school of agriculture, a school of engineering and a school of general science. The New Mexico Agricultural Experiment Station was a part of the institution. The agricultural extension service was inaugurated in 1915 under the Smith-Lever Act passed by Congress May 8, 1914.

The equipment in 1912 included the administration, agriculture, engineering, science and the college Y. M. C. A. building; two dormitories and farm equipment. The college farm consisted of 200 acres of irrigated land under the Elephant Butte Dam and 200 acres of non-irrigated lands. A new engineering building was constructed in 1913 and several additions made to it since, the campus was improved in 1918, and stock barns added in 1920.

The school has had five presidents since 1912, namely: W. E. Garrison, G. E. Ladd, A. D. Crile, R. W. Clothier and H. L. Kent. Members of the faculty who have been with the institution since 1912 are: Fabian Garcia, C. T. Hagerty, Ward Bloodgood and W. T. Conway. There were twenty-five members of the faculty and Experiment Station in 1912 and thirty-seven in 1924. The enrollment in 1913 was sixty-five students of college rank and 207 of lower standing. In 1922 the school had 185 college students and 237 below college rank.

The Federal appropriation for the experiment station and the school was $80,000 in 1912. The state support in 1912 amounted to $20,000 and in 1925, $68,000. The income from lands for the six years from 1919 to 1924 averaged $29,000 annually.

The New Mexico Military Institute constructed its first building in the Tudor Gothic style in 1908 and since that time all of the older buildings have been replaced by structures which are of the same architecture. The first section of the barracks was constructed in 1908 and between 1913 and 1924 three sections have been added. The academic building was erected in 1910, the mess hall in 1918 and the hospital in 1920. The headquarters building and the natatorium are also of recent construction. The campus has an area of forty acres.

The institution is a military boarding school offering a six-years course which covers the work of a four-year high school plus the first two years of college. The military organization was changed from infantry to cavalry in the fall of 1920 at the suggestion of the United States War Department. The institution was classified as "distinguished" in 1909 and has continued to hold that rating. J. W. Willson was superintendent in 1912 and was succeeded by J. C. Troutman in 1923. Members of the faculty who have served since 1917 are: John McClure, Margaret Decker, J. B. Monsetler and John Fletcher. E. A. Cahoon was a member of the board of regents in 1912 and is serving at the present time. The enrollment of the school was 137 in 1905 and 348 in 1924.

The state appropriation in 1912 amounted to $25,000 and in 1925 it was $50,000. The average income from lands during the six years from 1919 to 1924 was $18,000 annually.

The New Mexico Normal University equipment in 1912 consisted of the administration building, the girls' dormitory, and several wooden buildings. Since that time additions have been made in the form of an auditorium, dining hall, boys' dormitory and the manual training building.

The school is organized in three departments: the training school which consists of the grades; the high school department and the normal college, both of which offer four-year courses. The enrollment of the high school and normal departments in 1912 was 143 and in 1922 there were fifty-two students of college rank and 322 of high school grade.

The faculty has increased from fifteen members in 1912 to twenty-seven in 1922. During the period there have been three presidents, namely: F. H. H. Roberts, J. H. Wagner and Frank Carroon. Those members of the faculty who have been connected with the school since 1915 are: T. G. Rodgers, Margaret Kennedy, Bessie Watt and Frank Carroon.

The state appropriation for support in 1912 amounted to $32,000. The 1925 Legislature set aside $82,500 for the institution. The income from lands during the six years from 1919 to 1924 has averaged $9,000 annually.

The New Mexico Teachers' College plant in 1912 consisted of an administration building, two dormitories, a training school building, a gymnasium and a power plant. Since that time a science building which includes a new gymnasium and a boys' dormitory have been added. The campus covers twenty-five acres.

The three departments of the school comprise: a training school, first to eighth grade; a four-year high school and a four-year college course for teachers. The faculty was made up of ten teachers in 1912 and increased to twenty-three in 1922. The school has had five presidents since 1912, namely: C. M. Light, E. L. Enloe, W. O. Hall, J. F. Chamberlain, and A. O. Bowden. Mary Eckles is the only member of the faculty who has served the institution since 1912. T. L. Lowe has been a member of the board of regents for a number of years. The institution is a member of the American Association of Teachers' Colleges. The enrollment in 1912 in the high school and normal courses was eighty-eight and in 1922 there were 260 students of college grade and 269 of high school rank.

ALBUQUERQUE HIGH SCHOOL

The state appropriation for the institution in 1912 was $30,000. In 1925 the school received $62,000. The income from lands during the six years from 1919 to 1924 averaged $9,000.

The New Mexico School of Mines in 1912 was equipped with a main building, an engineering building and a dormitory. Since that time a power plant, a dormitory, a gymnasium and additions to the engineering building have been constructed. The campus contains thirty-two acres.

The courses include mining, metallurgical and geological, engineering; general science; and some high school subjects. The institution has had four presidents since 1912, namely: E. A. Drake, F. A. Jones, A. X. Illinski and E. H. Wells. The faculty since 1912 has had ten members. The enrollment in 1924 consisted of sixty-four students in regular courses and thirteen registered in special courses.

The state appropriation for the support of the institution in 1912 amounted to $22,500 and in 1925 it was $30,000. The income from lands for the six years from 1919 to 1924 has averaged $20,000 annually.

Photo by Museum Staff.

STATE SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF, SANTA FE

The Spanish American Normal School was founded for the purpose of educating teachers for districts in which Spanish is commonly spoken. The plant has since 1912 consisted of the main building and the dining hall. The school consists of a training school of the eight grades and a two year normal course of high school grade. The high school department in 1922 had not been developed sufficiently to be accredited by the State Board of Education. The enrollment in the grammar and high school departments in 1918 was sixty-nine. Since that time it has increased to more than 100. Jose Jordi is at present the president of the school. The faculty has seven members.

The state appropriation for the school in 1912 amounted to $5,000 and in 1925 it was $16,000. The income from lands for the years from 1919 to 1924 averaged $3,000 annually.

The New Mexico Institute for the Blind conducts a school for the blind in which courses of grade and high school work are given and in addition trades and music are taught. The plant consists of five buildings: an administration building, two dormitories, a teachers' cottage, a power plant and a laundry. The campus contains thirty-two acres. The faculty headed by R. R. Platt, as superintendent, consisted of eight teachers in 1920. The enrollment in 1922 was seventy-eight. The state appropriation in 1912 amounted to $17,500 and in 1925 it was $42,000. A special appropriation for the school was made by the 1925 Legislature of $65,000. The income from lands for the six years from 1919 to 1925 has averaged $10,000 a year.

The New Mexico School for the Deaf conducts a course based on the recommendations of the National Association of the Educated Deaf. In 1922 the faculty consisted of five teachers headed by W. O. Connor, Jr. The enrollment at that time was sixty-five. The state support for the school in 1912 was $12,500 and in 1925 it was $33,000. The income from lands during the six years from 1919 to 1924 averaged $10,000 annually.

State Lands, 1922.

				FUNDS	
	Granted	Acres Leased	Acres Sold	Total Income	Total Permanent
Common Schools	8,711,324	5,737,073	1,251,548	$3,640,068	$833,179
University	311,275	175,435	121,150	236,168	113,388
University Saline	1,622	------	------	12,814	------
Agricultural College	250,164	125,740	89,713	148,492	96,935
Normal Schools	300,009	210,142	57,528	125,070	68,401
School of Mines	200,000	113,460	65,235	113,581	49,096
Military Institute	150,014	83,945	58,557	78,148	52,452
Reform School	50,018	20,681	20,130	31,458	25,816
Miners' Hospital	100,000	64,942	28,893	52,235	27,043
Insane Asylum	150,000	110,039	32,334	66,585	27,234
Penitentiary	150,000	103,104	38,334	71,766	45,380
Charitable, Penal, Reform	100,000	65,383	31,269	67,274	20,706
School for Blind	50,000	28,366	19,219	58,799	36,005
Deaf Asylum	50,000	17,847	25,739	68,920	45,578
Deaf and Blind Institute	100,000	55,256	40,751	Included	Above
Water Reservoirs	500,000	242,691	220,360	413,499	128,467
Rio Grande Improvement	100,011	40,982	56,193	76,982	56,121
R. R. Bond Fund	1,000,000	255,028	686,776	567,645	683,416
Capital Buildings	132,000	109,021	20,182	71,830	11,091

In addition to the state schools there are a number of private schools which include schools of business, United States Indian schools, church grade and high schools and church colleges. The business schools are the Western School for Private Secretaries and the Albuquerque Business College, both located in Albuquerque. The Los Alamos Ranch School for boys at Otowi is the only private boarding school in the state.

The principal United States Indian schools are the boarding schools at Albuquerque and Santa Fe both of which have been in existence since the eighties. The enrollment at these schools is between 400 and 500 students. The Pueblo Bonito boarding school is at Crown Point. Recently the United States Congress has appropriated $300,000 for the establishing of an Indian school for the Navaho Indians at the Fort Wingate Military Reservation, fifteen miles east of Gallup in McKinley County. In addition to the boarding schools and St. Catherine's Indian School in Santa Fe, there are thirteen day schools supported by the Federal government at the different Pueblos.

Catholic grade schools at present are conducted in the following towns: Mora, Old Albuquerque, Socorro, Zuñi Pueblo, Roswell, Bernalillo, Belen, Raton, Roy, Albuquerque, Santa Fe and Rehoboth. Grade schools are also conducted in connection with other parishes and the high schools which are located at Las Cruces, Las Vegas, Albuquerque, Gallup and Santa Fe. De La Salle Institute and St. Michael's College at Santa Fe are the institutions of highest grade supported by the Catholic Church in New Mexico.

The Protestant churches support a number of schools. The Presbyterian Church has schools at the following towns: Truchas, Holman, Ranchos de Taos, Trementina, Taos, Chacon, Chimayó, Albuquerque and Santa Fe. The Methodist Church supports four schools, three of which are in Albuquerque and the fourth an Indian school for the Navaho Indians at Farmington in San Juan County. The Congregational schools are located at Seboyeta, Marguez, Cubero, San Mateo and Albuquerque. The United Brethren Church supports three schools which are located north of Santa Fe at the following towns: Velarde, Alcalde and Santa Cruz.

The Baptist Church in 1921 established Montezuma College using the buildings and the name of a large hotel built near Las Vegas in the eighties by the Santa Fe Railroad. The school was opened with an enrollment of eighty students in the high school and college courses. The faculty in 1923 consisted of fourteen members headed by Layton Maddox.

The church membership in New Mexico increased from 137,000 in 1906 to 210,000 in 1916. The membership of the churches increased in the decade as follows: The Roman Catholic, 121,559 to 177,727; the Methodist, from 6,560 to 11,767; the Presbyterian, from 2,939 to 4,245; the Baptist, from 2,403 to 6,721; the Church of Christ and Disciples of Christ, from 1,092 to 3,617; the Episcopal, from 869 to 1,718; and the Latter Day Saints, from 738 to 1,484.

The Archbishop of Santa Fe, J. B. Pitaval, who was consecrated in 1902 continued in office until 1919 when he was succeeded by Archbishop A. T. Daeger who had come to New Mexico in 1902 as pastor of the church at Peña Blanca. According to the 1922 report there were directly under the archbishop ninety-four clergy, 386 churches, 4,954 parish pupils and 149,164 members. A part of New Mexico was included in the Bishopric of Tucson which in 1922 had sixty-one clergy, 101 churches, 2,500 parish pupils and 51,000 members.

In addition to church and school work the Catholic Church conducts hospitals and orphanages, the most important of which are St. Vincent's Hospital at Santa Fe, St. Joseph's Hospital at Albuquerque, St. Mary's Hospital at Roswell, the New Mexico Orphans' School at Santa Fe and the St. Anthony Orphanage at Albuquerque.

The Methodist Church in addition to its church and school work conducts a hospital in Albuquerque. The Presbyterian Church also has a large hospital in Albuquerque. The Baptist Church which increased its membership to 9,588 by 1922 supports an orphans' home at Portales and a hospital at Clovis. Bishop F. B. Howden was chosen in 1913 to succeed Bishop J. M. Kendrick in control of the Episcopal missionary bishopric of New Mexico. In 1924 there were thirty-four missions and five parishes in the New Mexico part of the bishopric.

The newspapers of New Mexico increased in number between 1910 and 1920 but have decreased since that time. In 1910 there were three daily papers, eighty-six weeklies and two monthly publications making a total of ninety-one. The number of papers in 1920 was as follows: six dailies; ninety-three weeklies and nine other publications, making a total of 108. The decrease in the number of papers between 1920 and 1923 was chiefly among weeklies. The papers printed in 1923 included: six dailies, eighty-one weeklies and eight other publications. In the spring of 1924 two dailies were added to the list.

The daily newspapers and their circulations in 1924 were as follows: Albuquerque Morning Journal, 6,588; New Mexico State Tribune, 5,708; Albuquerque Evening Herald, 3,917; Las Vegas Optic, 3,598; Santa Fe New Mexican, 2,150; Roswell News, 1,500; Raton Range, 1,500 and the Roswell Record, the circulation of which is not available.

The rapid growth in circulation of the New Mexico State Tribune is the important recent development in New Mexico newspapers. The forerunner of the Tribune was Magee's Independent, a weekly, which C. C. Magee started in 1922 following the sale of the Albuquerque Morning Journal. On April 5, 1923, the paper became a daily and changed its name to the New Mexico State Tribune. Before the end of the year the paper was sold to Scripps-Howard, but with the provision that Magee should determine the editorial policy. Magee has freely criticized a number of men prominent in public affairs and, as a result, has made many enemies and many friends. The circulation increased to 10,000 within two years after the paper became a daily due to the financial support of a large newspaper syndicate, the low price and the editorial policy.

The art, anthropological and historical collections which have been developed in recent years at Santa Fe were begun by the Historical Society of New Mexico organized February 2, 1860.

After some three years of work the society became inactive and the collections scattered. The re-organization of the society took place on the last Monday in December, 1880, and the collecting of historical material was renewed. When the territorial capitol building was completed in 1885, the eastern rooms of the Palace of the Governors were given to the society, free of rent for the housing of the collection. The Legislature in the years following set aside $500 annually for the support of the society. During the last years of the territorial period the annual appropriation was increased to $1,000.

Photo by Museum Staff.

THE MUSEUM OF NEW MEXICO

The Archaeological Society of New Mexico was organized in the fall of 1898 by the president of the New Mexico Normal University, E. L. Hewett, who carried on archaeological investigations during the following five years in the Pajarito Plateau area lying about fifty miles west of Santa Fe. In 1907 the Archaeological Institute of America decided to organize a school of American archaeology similar to those established at Rome, Athens and Jerusalem for European archaeology. Hewett was made director of the school as he had the year before been named director of American archaeology by the council of the Archaeological Institute of America.

Through an arrangement between the Territory of New Mexico and the Archaeological Institute of America, the School of American Archaeology, the name of which was changed in 1917 to School of American Research, was established in the western end of the Palace of the Governors. The plan proposed by the Institute December 15, 1908, which included the establishing of a State Museum, was accepted by the territory on February 10, 1909. The act provided $3,000 for repairing the Palace and an annual appropriation of $5,000. The governing board of the State Museum consisted of six regents appointed by the governor. The director of the School of American Archaeology was made director of the museum serving without compensation. The Palace of the Governors was restored, the modern additions in woodwork being removed in order that the original style of the building might be preserved. In the rooms of the western end of the Palace devoted to the museum were installed the archaeological collections made by the School at Puyé, and Rito de los Frijoles and the walls were beautifully decorated by Carl Lotav with scenes of the Pajarito Plateau district.

Thus had grown up by 1915 two collections housed in the Palace of the Governors supported by state appropriations; that of the state museum in the western end under direction of the School of American Archaeology and that of the Historical Society of New Mexico in the eastern part. On March 3, 1915, the appropriation for the State Museum was increased to $10,000.

The erection of the New Mexico building at the Panama-California Exposition marked the beginning of a new period in the development of the State Museum because the building emphasized the New Mexico style of architecture and was later reproduced in Santa Fe by the side of the Palace of the Governors. The State Legislature appropriated $30,000 for the building and exhibit, at San Diego, March 15, 1913, and an additional $12,000 was set aside in 1915. The art, architecture and exhibits of the structure were under the direction of R. E. Twitchell and E. L. Hewett. In competition with other state edifices of the Exposition, the New Mexico building was awarded the first prize. The reproduction of the building at Santa Fe was made possible by an act of the legislature, March 18, 1915, which appropriated $30,000 for the construction of the building providing $30,000 should be raised by private parties. On April 12, 1916, the director of the School of American Archaeology agreed, under conditions, to supply the $30,000 required and the terms were accepted by the regents of the museum. The museum, including auditorium, art galleries and library, was completed in November of 1917. The state provided $45,000 for equipping and $15,500 for maintenance on March 15, 1917. The appropriation made March 17, 1919, was for $25,000. The annual support from the state has decreased only slightly since that time.

While the Historical Society has continued to receive $1,200 annually, the state appropriation for the museum has increased from $5,000 in 1909 to $23,700 in 1923. Thus the museum has developed and overshadowed the earlier collections of the Historical Society of New Mexico.

The Museum, through the School of American Research, carries on archaeological investigations. Several important sites, Pecos, Quaray and Gran Quivira are the property of the State Museum. The historical and anthropological collections are extensive. As an art center the museum has aided in the development of the Santa Fe-Taos Art Colony by furnishing art galleries.

The work of Carl Lotav was followed by the seven mural paintings which adorn the walls of the auditorium of the museum, representing phases of the life of Saint Francis of Assisi. These were orginally planned and sketched by Donald Beauregard under commission from Frank Springer. They were completed by Carlos Vierra and Kenneth Chapman. Through gift and purchase the permanent art collection of the Museum includes paintings of Donald Beauregard, J. H. Sharp, Gerald Cassidy, Carlos Vierra and others.

The Santa Fe-Taos art movement had its origin at Taos about 1900 when J. H. Sharp and Bert Phillips settled there and began producing medal paintings of Indians and local scenes. Walter Ufer has said of Taos, "The portrait painter, the landscape artist, the limner of character, the genre and prehistoric painter, every school and every temperament, will here find what his heart desires." Others joined the colony among whom were E. L. Blumenschein, E. I. Couse, W. H. Dunton, O. E. Berringhaus, Victor Higgins, Walter Ufer and Julius Rolshoven. The Society of Taos Artists was organized in 1915. The first annual art exhibit was held in the fall of 1915 in the Palace of the Governors under the auspices of the School of American Archaeology.

The number of art exhibits has steadily increased since 1915, due in part to the improved exhibition facilities provided by the State Museum. Eighteen art exhibits were held in 1916, including the second annual exhibit of the Taos artists, and the second exhibit of the Santa Fe colony, a group that came into existence following the establishment of the School of American Archaeology at Santa Fe in 1909. First exhibitions were given to more than 1,100 paintings in the thirty-eight exhibits held at Santa Fe in the State Museum during 1919.

National monuments are areas set aside by the United States for the preservation of antiquities, places of historic interest and natural wonders, which have an educational value. In 1902 Congressman J. F. Lacey, who was then chairman of the House Committee on Public Lands, visited New Mexico and had pointed out to him many of the archaeological sites of the territory by E. L. Hewett who later drafted the law creating National Monuments which was passed by the United States Congress June 8, 1906. This act provided for penalties for injuring antiquities on the public domain; for permits to proper persons for investigations; for the setting aside of areas of the public domain to be known as National Monuments; and for the acceptance of lands donated to the United States for the protection of prehistoric monuments, historic landmarks and natural wonders, as caves, springs and natural bridges. When the National Park Service was established in 1917, the National Monuments were placed under its control.

Six National Monuments have been created in New Mexico. The Bandelier National Monument comprising 22,075 acres was established February 11, 1916. It includes the prehistoric ruins of the narrow canyons of the Pajarito Plateau which is about fifty miles west of Santa Fe. This has been the particular field of investigation in New Mexico of the School of American Research.

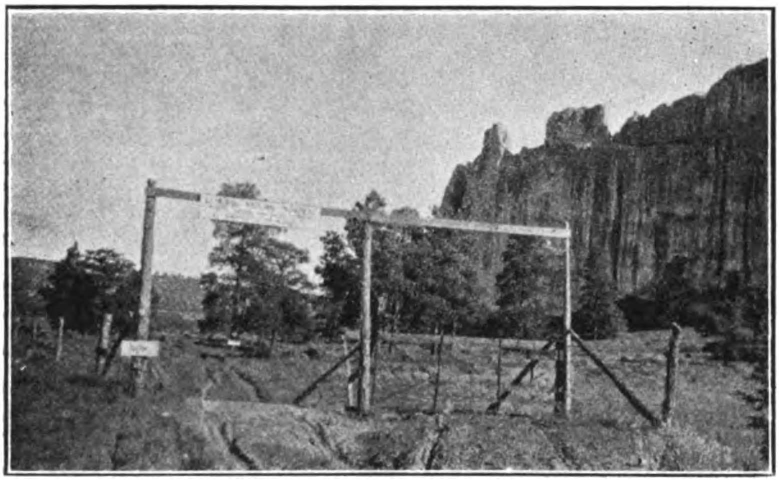


Photo by Museum Staff.

EL MORRO NATIONAL MONUMENT

The Chaco Canyon National Monument which includes 20,629 acres was created March 11, 1907. It is located in the southeastern corner of San Juan County and is the site of a group of large pueblo ruins, the most prominent of which are Chettro Ketl and Pueblo Bonito.

El Morro, or Inscription Rock National Monument containing 240 acres was established by the proclamation of the President of the United States, June 18, 1917. It is located in the western part of Valencia County about twenty-five miles east of the Zuñi Pueblo. Early in the seventeenth century the first records were cut by the Spanish explorers in the soft sandstone cliff.

The Gran Quivira National Monument consisting of 560 acres was established November 1, 1909. It is in the southern part of Torrance County, twenty miles south of Willard. The site comprises the ruins of a large Pueblo and the walls of a church and friary built by the Franciscan friars. The settlement was deserted in the decade preceding 1680.

The Gila National Monument, created November 16, 1907, contains 160 acres. It consists of a group of four cliff dwellings in the canyon of West Fork of the Gila River, thirty miles north of Silver City.

The Capulin National Monument comprising 681 acres was established August 9, 1916, for the preservation of the perfect cone of Capulin Mountain. It is located in Union County near the town of Capulin which formerly was called Dedman.

The Carlsbad Cavern National Monument is the most recently created National Monument in New Mexico. The 1925 legislature ceded certain state lands to the Federal government for this purpose. The cavern was discovered by J. L. White in 1901 but no extensive explorations were made until 1924. Prior to March, 1925, when the Carlsbad Chamber of Commerce built a stairway into the cavern, the only entrance was by means of a bucket hoist used by a company engaged in removing bat guano fertilizer. Vast numbers of bats made their daily morning entrance into the cave through an opening caused by the falling in of a small portion of the roof. It has been estimated that 100,000 tons of bat guano have been taken from the cavern since 1901.

Below the opening of the cavern the floor is reached at a depth of 170 feet, but the deepest parts of the cavern are believed to be more than 1,000 feet below the surface. Eight miles of the cavern have thus far been explored. The walls are snow white, the cavern having been formed in strata of limestone which are 1,300 feet thick.

CHAPTER XXXI

THE COUNTIES ESTABLISHED BETWEEN 1846 AND 1878

By treating the counties in order of their establishment it will be possible to emphasize the extension of settlements which has brought about the present state of development in New Mexico. When the United States occupied New Mexico in 1846 there were seven counties which had been organized under the Mexican government in 1844. From north to south these were Taos, Rio Arriba, Santa Fe, San Miguel, Santa Ana, Bernalillo and Valencia. To these Socorro was added in 1850 and Dona Ana in 1852. In that same year the Territorial Legislature passed an act which included within these counties all of the territory from Texas to California, although the only settled parts of these political subdivisions were in the Rio Grande Valley with the exception of San Miguel which included a part of the Upper Pecos and a part of the Canadian Valley. Mora, Grant, Lincoln and Colfax were created between 1860 and 1870. The only decade in which no new counties came into existence was the one from 1870 to 1880. The areas included in the various counties at the end of each decade may be found by consulting the county maps printed in an earlier part of this work.

TAOS COUNTY BOUNDARIES DEFINED, JANUARY 9, 1852

Taos County named from the Taos Indians was delimited January 9, 1852. Although in the earlier period it was much larger than the present area, the chief center has always been the region about the Town of Taos. After several changes in the boundaries, the region was given its present limits February 10, 1880. It is the central one of the five forming the northern tier of counties. The eastern portion includes the western slope of the Sangre de Cristo Mountains. Somewhat west of the center of the county is the canyon of the Rio Grande which traverses the region from north to south. Between the river and the Sangre de Cristo Mountains is the Taos Basin, the chief agricultural area. West of the Rio Grande the eastern plateau of the San Juan Mountains is included within the county. The altitude which varies between 6,000 and 13,000 feet determines the native animal and plant life. The average precipitation is thirteen inches. During the months from October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Taos is thirty-five degrees and during the months from April to September, sixty degrees.

Although the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad was built along the western border of the region in the early '80s, it did not bring about any extensive economic development. The only branch line built extends from Taos Junction to La Madera in the southwestern part. The improved roads consist of the one from Taos to Embudo, a part of the highway to Santa Fe; the one to the southeast which leads to Mora; and the one running eastward to Elizabethtown in Colfax County. There is also an improved highway between Elizabethtown and Questa in the Red River Valley of Taos County.

The rank of Taos among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, eleventh; in area, twenty-fifth; in number of people to square mile, seventh; in total assessed valuation of property, twenty-eighth; in valuation of town property, thirtieth; in valuation of farms, nineteenth; in valuation of livestock, twenty-sixth; in area of irrigated lands, second; in number of pupils eleventh; and in number of teachers, thirteenth.

The population of Taos County has changed very little in the past fifty years. In 1870 there were 12,079 people and in 1920 the number was 12,773. Taos, which is the largest town of the region, had a population of 1,302 in 1870 and 1,832 in 1920. The precincts having more than 500 people in 1920 were the following: Llano, 1,034; Luceros, 831; Chamisal, 799; Ranchos de Taos, 785; Arroyo Seco, 753; Costilla, 723; Arroyo Hondo, 622; Penasco, 686; Cerro, 587; and Talpa, 549.

The Carson National Forest covers 308,720 acres in the eastern and the southwestern part of the county. The two Indian reservations, Taos and Picuris, include about 35,000 acres.

The figures show that Taos has not attracted a large number of settlers in the period since New Mexico was opened up by the railroads. The mountains may not create wealth for the immediate locality, but they do create a beautiful country. This attraction together with the Indian life at the Taos Pueblo has drawn a number of artists to Taos. John H. Sharp and Bert Phillips started in 1900 the movement which resulted in the founding of the Taos Art Colony.

RIO ARRIBA COUNTY BOUNDARIES DEFINED, JANUARY 9, 1852

Rio Arriba County received its name from one of the divisions of New Mexico in Spanish times. The upper valley was called Rio Arriba and the lower valley south of Bernalillo, Rio Abajo. The boundaries were fixed January 9, 1852, including a strip of country from the Sangre de Cristo Mountains to California south of Taos County. On February 10, 1880, Rio Arriba was enlarged giving to it all of the country west of the present Taos-Rio Arriba line. When San Juan County was created, February 24, 1887, Rio Arriba was given its present boundaries with the exception of a part of the southwestern section which was later added to Sandoval County. Rio Arriba lies along the northern border of the state between Taos and San Juan counties. Although the Rio Grande passes across the southeastern corner of the county, the chief valley of the area is the Chama and its branches. The San Juan Mountains characterized by high plateaus and deep canyons occupy a large part of the county. The Chama and several short rivers flow eastward into the Rio Grande. The rivers of the western part are west of the continental divide and flow into the San Juan River. The altitude of the county varies between 6,000 and 10,000 feet. The mean temperature at the Town of Chama for October to March is thirty-two degrees Fahrenheit and for April to October fifty-six degrees. The average annual precipitation at Espanola is nine inches and at Chama twenty-three inches.

The Denver and Rio Grande Railroad extends along the eastern and northern borders, which has the effect of leaving a large part of the region without railroads. The roads of the county have been improved in the southeastern part of the county along the Rio Grande, along the Chama River as far as Abiquiu and between Chama and Tierra Amarilla in the northern part.

The rank of Rio Arriba among the counties of the New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in area, fifth; in number of people to the square mile, fourth; in total assessed valuation, twenty-second; in valuation of town property, twenty-fifth; in valuation of farms, sixteenth; in valuation of livestock, twentieth; in acres of irrigated lands, fifth; in number of pupils, fifth; in number of teachers, sixth.

The Jicarilla Apache Indian Reservation, the San Juan Pueblo and parts of the Carson and Santa Fe National Forests cover approximately one-half of the county. The Jicarilla Reservation in the western part has an area of 761,112 acres. The area of the National forests is 1,163,875 acres. The county received from the Forest Service in 1924 for roads and schools the sum of $7,150.

Rio Arriba has no large towns. The total population has increased slowly from 10,000 in 1860 to 20,000 in 1920. At that time there were no incorporated towns, the largest precinct being that of Tierra Amarilla with a population of 1,106. There were fourteen precincts with a population ranging between 500 and 900, namely; Velarde, Canjilon, Chama, Chama Abajo, Rio Arriba, Cebolla, Las Truchas, Chimayo, La Cueva, Vallecito, Park View, Embudo, El Rito and El Vado.

The attractions of Rio Arriba are its scenic beauty and pleasant summer climate. To the person interested in American archaeology, the ruins of the pre-historic Indian Pueblos in the lower Chama Valley are of importance. The Town of Abiquiu is of historic interest having been a Spanish settlement on the Navaho frontier in the eighteenth century. Ojo Caliente is the seat of hot springs believed by many to have medicinal qualities. The only state institution located in the county is the Spanish-American Normal School at El Rito.

SANTA FE COUNTY BOUNDARIES DEFINED, JANUARY 9, 1852

Santa Fe County derives its name from the City of Santa Fe which was called the city of Holy Faith by the Franciscans and the Spanish authorities in 1609. The boundaries of the county were defined January 9, 1852, and although slightly changed at later times, the area included at present is practically the same as that of 1852. The southern end of the Sangre de Cristo Mountains occupy the northern part of the county and are drained westward by the Santa Cruz, Pojoaque, Santa Fe and Galisteo rivers. In the southern part of the Ortiz, San Pedro and Golden Mountains form isolated groups between the Sangre de Cristo and the Sandia Mountains. The altitude ranges from 6,000 to 12,000 feet. The average annual precipitation at Santa Fe is fifteen inches. During the months from October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature is thirty-six degrees and during the months April to September, sixty-one degrees.

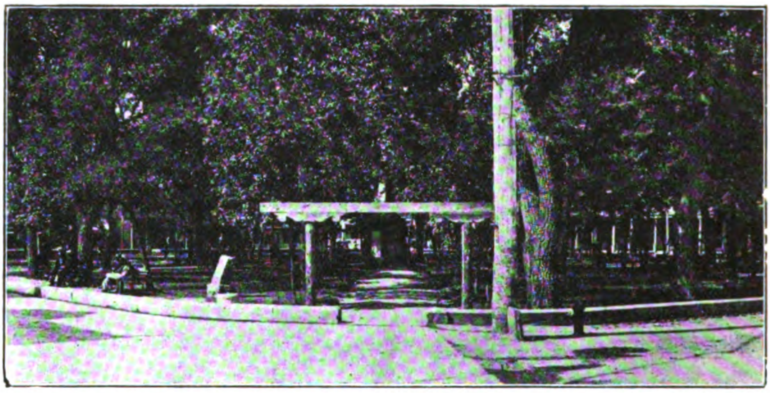


Photo by Museum Staff.

THE PLAZA AT SANTA FE

The Santa Fe Railroad and the Denver and Rio Grande built lines into Santa Fe County in the early '80s. The Santa Fe crossed the center of the county from Glorieta to Cerrillos and ran a branch line to Santa Fe. The Denver and Rio Grande line entered the county at Espanola and terminated at Santa Fe. The New Mexico Central Railroad was built in 1904. During the pre-railroad period the Town of Santa Fe was the business center of New Mexico, but after the coming of the railroads Albuquerque, Las Vegas and other towns on the main line of the Santa Fe became the distributing points. In recent years well graded gravel roads have been constructed which radiate from Santa Fe toward Glorieta, Santo Domingo and Espanola.

The rank of Santa Fe among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, eighth; in area, twenty-seventh; in number of people to the square mile, third; in total assessed valuation of property, fourteenth; in valuation of town property, eighth; in valuation of farms, fourteenth; in valuation of livestock, twenty-fifth; in acres of irrigated lands, fifteenth; in number of pupils, third; and in number of teachers, twelfth.

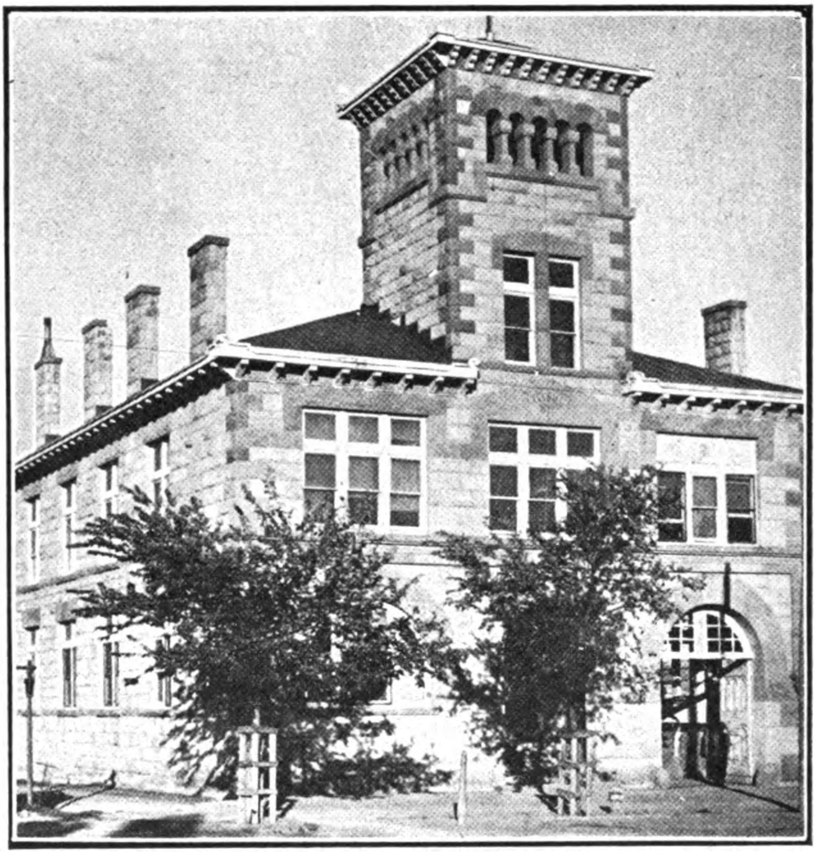
The area of Forest and Indian reserves in Santa Fe County is not large. The four Rio Grande Pueblos lying within the county are Nambe, Tesuque, Santa Clara and San Ildefonso which have a combined area of approximately 70,000 acres. The area of the Santa Fe National Forest within the county is in the northeastern part and amounts to 184,176 acres.

The only important center of population in the county is the City of Santa Fe. The population of the county has increased from 11,000 in 1880 to 15,000 in 1920. The City of Santa Fe had 5,000 people in 1850 and the same number in 1910. During the following decade the population increased to 7,236. The four precincts outside the City of Santa Fe that had more than 500 people in 1920 were Madrid, Cerrillos, San Ildefonso and Ortiz.

The attractions of Santa Fe County are found in its delightful climate, its Indian Pueblos, its mountains and in the City of Santa Fe. Santa Fe has been the capital of New Mexico since 1609. In addition to the archives of Spanish and American times, it has the largest, art, anthropological and historical collections in the state. Since 1909 when the work of restoring the Palace of the Governors was begun a great deal has been accomplished to give the city a unique and artistic appearance through the construction of a large number of public and private buildings in the New Mexico Mission and Pueblo styles of architecture. The Santa Fe Fiesta held annually in September attracts many visitors to the city.

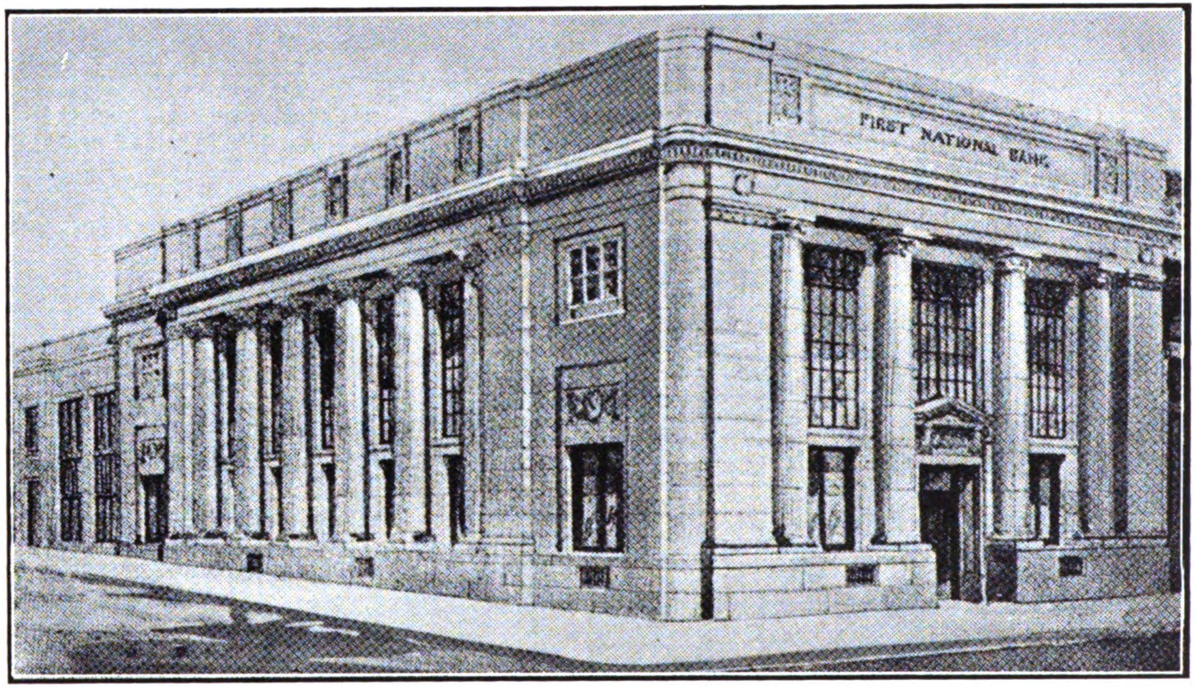
SAN MIGUEL COUNTY BOUNDARIES DEFINED, JANUARY 9, 1852

San Miguel County was so named from the settlement of San Miguel which in turn was named for Saint Michael by the Spanish. The boundaries were defined January 9, 1852, and later extended southward to include the eastern part of Bernalillo and Valencia counties. Only slight changes have been made since the early '90s when the southern part was made Guadalupe County and the eastern part included in Union. The beautiful canyons of the southern part of the Sangre de Cristo Mountains lie in the northwestern part of the county and are drained by the Pecos which flows across the western part of San Miguel. The highlands of the central part of the county separate the Pecos from the Canadian Valley which crosses the region from north to south in the western part. The altitude varies from 11,000 feet in the Upper Pecos Valley to 4,500 feet at the Bell Ranch in the Canadian Valley. The average annual precipitation at Las Vegas is eighteen inches. During the months from October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Las Vegas is thirty-eight degrees and during the months April to September sixty-one degrees.



CITY HALL, EAST LAS VEGAS

The Santa Fe Railroad was constructed across the northwestern part of the county in 1880 and Las Vegas became an important commercial center. Shortly after 1900 the Dawson Railway was built in the extreme eastern part of the area. The central part of the county is without railroads. The improved roads have been built during recent years. The first was the highway to Pecos on the way to Santa Fe. The road northward to Watrous with a branch to Mora and one southward to Anton


FIRST NATIONAL BANK

FIRST NATIONAL BANK, EAST LAS VEGAS

Chico comprise the other improved highways, all of which lie in the western part of the county.

The rank of San Miguel among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, second; in area, tenth; in total assessed valuation of property, fifth; in valuation of town property, fifth; in valuation of farms, fourth; in valuation of stock, seventh; in acres of irrigated lands, eleventh; in numbers of pupils, second; and in number of teachers, third.

The only lands reserved by the Federal government are those of the Santa Fe National Forest which amount to 287,956 acres in the northwestern part of the county. There are no Indian reservations at present. The United States confirmed the Pecos Grant in 1858 which was later acquired by D. C. Collier, the few remaining Indians of the once powerful Pecos Pueblo having moved to Jemez. This grant consisted of 18,763 acres principally in San Miguel, but partially in Santa Fe County.

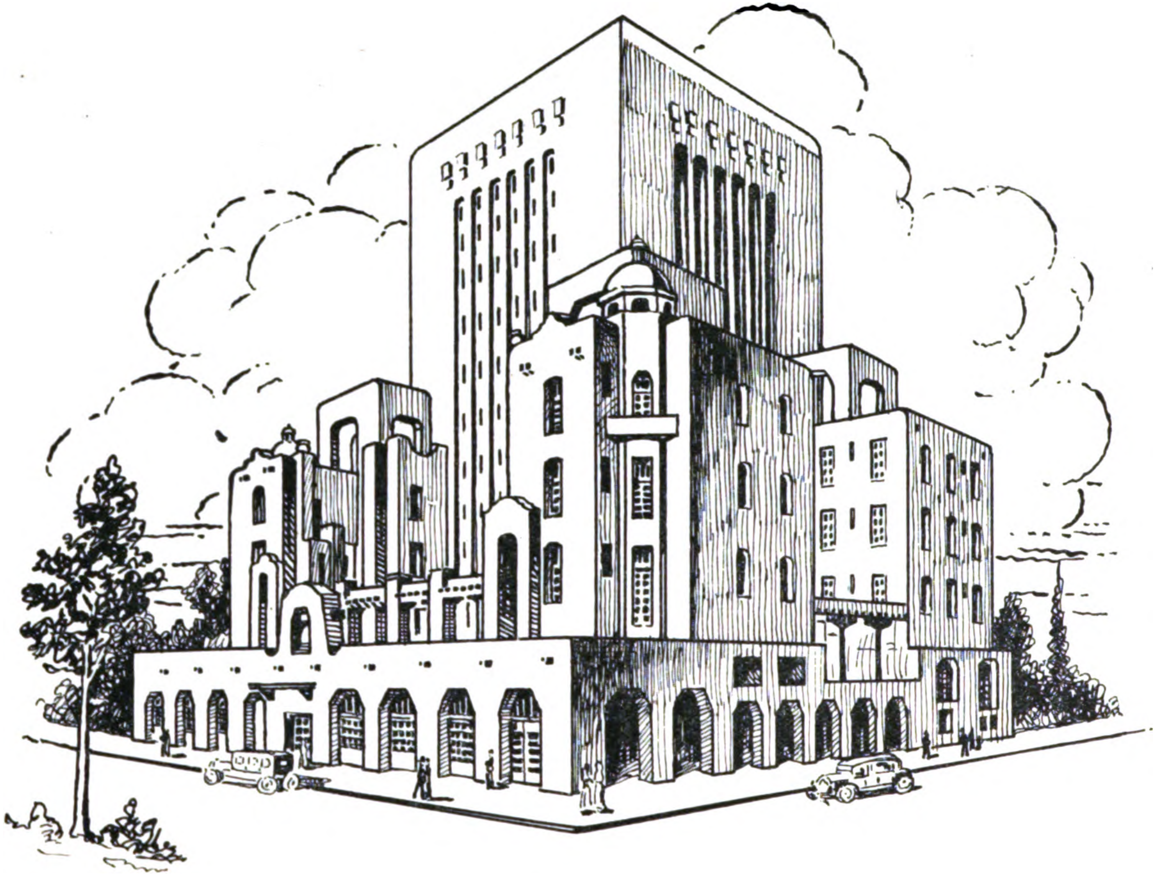
San Miguel is the seat of two state institutions: The New Mexico Normal University and the New Mexico Insane Asylum both of which are located at Las Vegas. Montezuma College is located about six miles northwest of Las Vegas. This institution was established by the Baptist Church in 1922 using for the buildings the remodeled Montezuma Hotel which was built at Hot Springs by the Santa Fe Railroad in the '80s and later closed after the investment of almost one million dollars in the project.

The Bell Ranch in the western part of San Miguel County is one of the largest cattle ranches in the state. The property consists of the Pablo Montoya Grant which was made by the Mexican government in 1824 and confirmed by the United States in 1869. The area of the grant as confirmed was 655,468 acres, all of which was fenced before 1903. Hereford and Durham stock were introduced more than twenty years ago.

San Miguel County has not increased in population during the last thirty years, according to the census reports. In 1890 the number was 24,204 and in 1920 it was 22,867. The combined population of Las Vegas and East Las Vegas, which are two corporations, but in all other respects one town, almost doubled in the same period, the number of people in 1920 being 8,100. The precincts having more than 500 people in 1920 were: Chavez, 518; Cuesta, 592; Trementina, 605; and Pecos, 699.

BERNALILLO COUNTY BOUNDARIES DEFINED, JANUARY 9, 1852

Bernalillo County was named from the Town of Bernalillo which was formerly the county seat. The origin of the name is obscure. It has been said that it represents parts of the personal name, Bernal de Castillo. Under the original boundaries of the area as defined January 9, 1852, the county consisted of a comparatively small area with strips of land extending to California and Texas which had no importance. Bernalillo continued as a small county until January 13, 1876, when Santa



FRANCISCAN HOTEL, ALBUQUERQUE

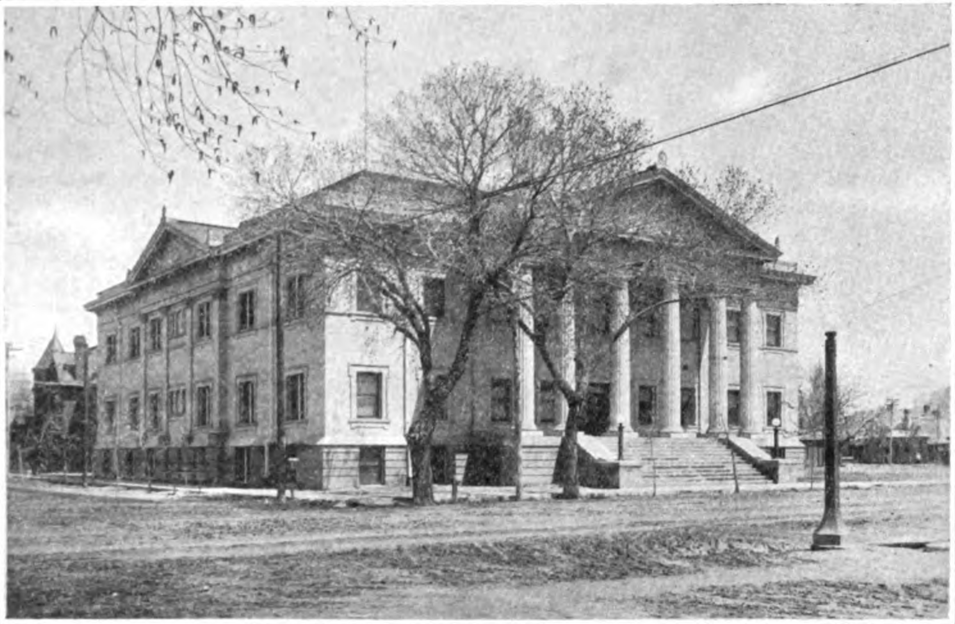
Ana County was abolished and the area annexed to Bernalillo. With this change Bernalillo comprised almost all of what is now Sandoval, McKinley and Bernalillo. McKinley was created from the western part of Bernalillo February 23, 1899, and Sandoval from the northern part, March 10, 1903. In this way Bernalillo lost practically the same territory which had been annexed when Santa Ana County went out of existence except that the northern line of Bernalillo was placed south of the Town of Bernalillo which had been a part of the original county. Bernalillo County is somewhat north and west of the center of the state. The Rio Grande passes from north to south through the center of the county and is separated from the Rio Puerco by a mesa, which is an almost unpopulated area. East of the Rio Grande the mesa rises gradually to the foothills of the Sandia and Manzano Mountains which are separated by Tijeras Canyon. The altitude varies from 5,000 feet in the valley to 10,000 in the mountains. The mean annual precipitation at Albuquerque is between seven and eight inches and in the mountains about fifteen inches. During the months from October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature is forty-two degree and during the months April to September, sixty-nine.

The Santa Fe Railroad built through the center of the county in 1880 was responsible for making Albuquerque the largest town of the state. In the early years following the coming of the railroad the towns of Bernalillo and Socorro were competitors for the business center of the state. The building of improved roads since 1920 under Federal aid projects has resulted in the construction of forty miles of concrete highways running north to Bernalillo, south to Isleta and east to Tijeras Canyon. From the Tijeras Canyon road, the Forest Service has constructed a scenic highway over the Sandia Mountains which joins the highway at Bernalillo, making a beautiful drive of about seventy miles.

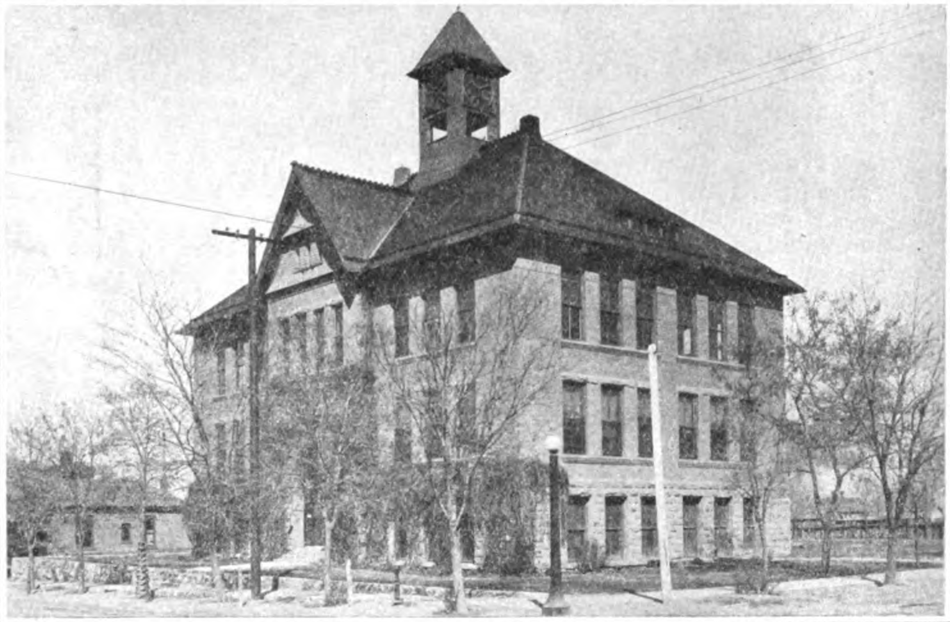
The rank of Bernalillo among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, first; in area, thirty-first; in total assessed valuation of property, third; in valuation of town property, first; in valuation of farms, twelfth; in valuation of livestock, thirty-first; in area of irrigated lands, twelfth; in number of pupils, first; in number of teachers, first.

The Isleta Pueblo lands and a part of the Manzano National Forest lie within the region. The Isleta Pueblo grant in the Rio Grande Valley along the southern border of the county consists of 110,080 acres. The Manzano Forest section in the Sandia Mountains covers 81,943 acres. These places form the chief points of interest in the county.

The population of the county increased from 7,500 in 1870 to 28,630 in 1900. The census report shows only a slight increase since that time, the number of people in 1920 being 29,855. Albuquerque, including the residence districts which



Masonic Temple
Albuquerque has reason to be Proud of her Public Buildings.



Public Library, Gift to City of Joshua Raynolds.
Note the Sanitary Drinking Fountain near the Corner.

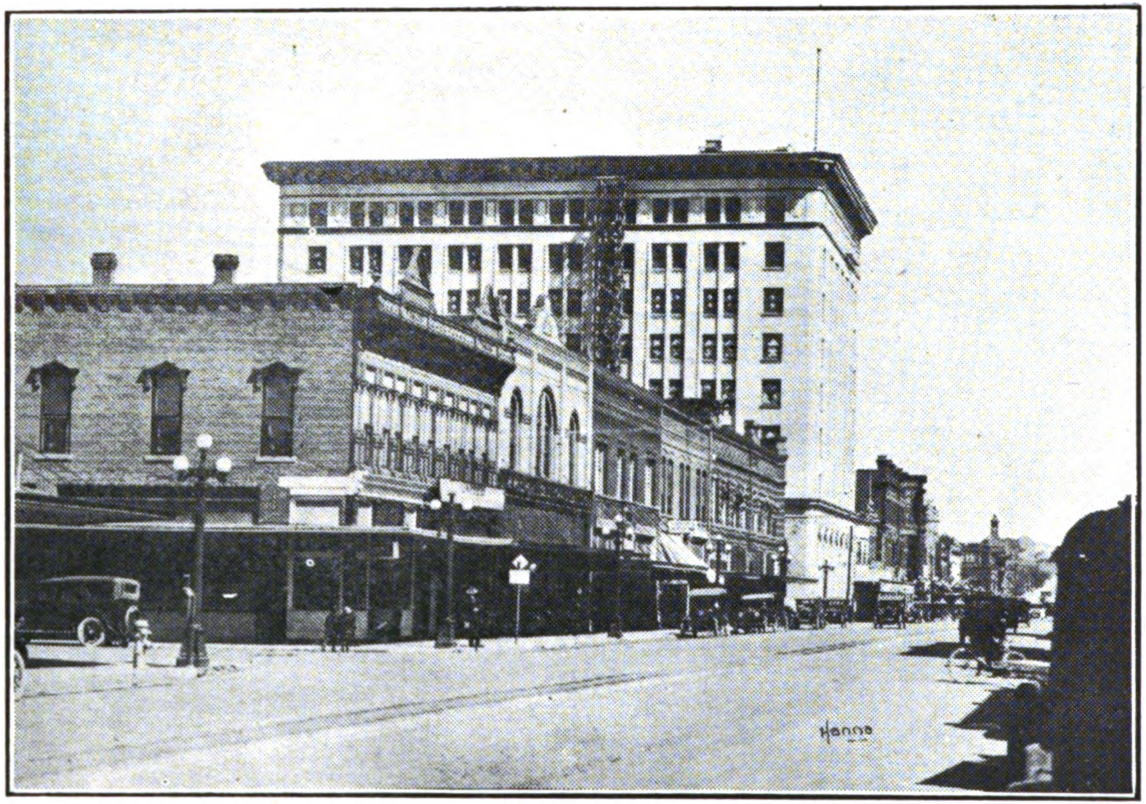
MASONIC TEMPLE AND PUBLIC LIBRARY, ALBUQUERQUE are not included within the limits of the incorporated city, doubled in population each decade from 1890 to 1910. The 1910 census fixed the population of the incorporated area at 11,000 and the 1920 census at 15,000. The precincts of the county having more than 500 people in 1920, lying close to Albuquerque in most cases, are the following: San Jose, 1,920; Old Albuquerque, 1,885; Los Barelas, 1,473; Los Padillas, 1,299; Los Duranes, 974; Alameda, 778; Los Griegos, 747; Ranchos de Atrisco, 691; Atrisco, 675; and Ranchos de Albuquerque, 559. All of these precincts lie in the narrow irrigated Rio Grande Valley between Alamedo and Isleta, which has always formed the principal settled area of the county.

Bernalillo County is the educational center of the state. In addition to its public school system which has a larger number of pupils and teachers than any other county, it has the State University, a Federal Indian School, and schools supported by the Catholic, Methodist, Presbyterian and Congregational churches. The advantages of a modern city in amusements, recreation, education and other intellectual activities have no doubt played a part in attracting to the region a large number of people who find that the climate of the Southwest is beneficial. The hospitals and sanatoriums controlled by churches, corporations, or doctors provide the highest type of medical service and care.

VALENCIA COUNTY BOUNDARIES DEFINED, JANUARY 9, 1852

Valencia County was named from the Town of Valencia which in turn received its name from the province in Spain. The boundaries defined January 9, 1852, included a strip of territory extending from Texas to California. In the early '70s the eastern part of the area was made a part of San Miguel County. On March 18, 1901 the northwestern part of the region was added to McKinley County. With some slight later changes, Valencia acquired its present boundaries March 16, 1903, when the eastern part was taken to form a part of Torrance County. The eastern part of the area is drained by the San José, the Rio Puerco and the Rio Grande, and the western part by small streams that flow into the Zuñi River. The continental divide passes through the center of the county which is a broken region characterized by lava flows. The Zuñi Mountains occupy the northwestern part of the county. The average annual precipitation is eleven inches. The altitude varies between 5,000 feet along the Rio Grande and 10,000 in the Zuñi Mountains. At Laguna during the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature is forty degrees and during the months April to September, sixty-five degrees.

The Santa Fe Railroad constructed its lines through the eastern part of the area, and across the northeastern section from Belen to Bluewater in 1880 and the road from Clovis to Belen



Central Avenue, Albuquerque

in 1907. However, this has not resulted in any marked increase in the population of the region. Improved highways radiating from Belen follow the railroad lines and are a part of transcontinental routes.

The rank of Valencia among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, tenth; in area, eighth; in number of people to the square mile, eighteenth; in total assessed valuation of property, eighth; in valuation of town property, ninth; in valuation of farms, eleventh; in valuation of live stock, ninth; in area of irrigated lands, ninth; in number of pupils, thirteenth; and in number of teachers, twenty-first.

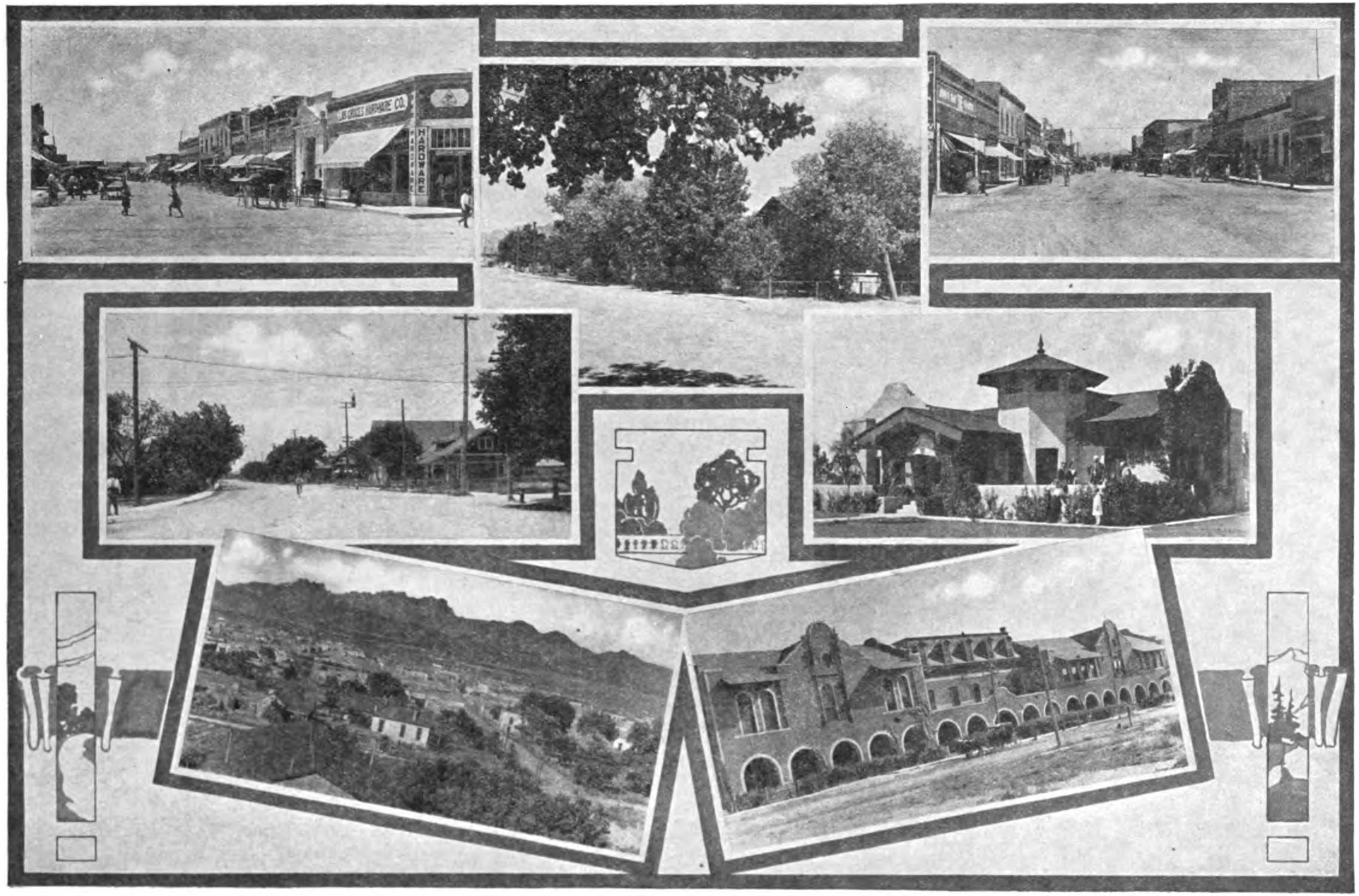
The Indian Reservations and National Forests of Valencia are not extensive. The Manzano National Forest areas within the county consist of 91,000 acres in the northern and western parts. The lands of the Laguna Indians amounting to 154,025 acres lie in the San Jose Valley about fifty miles west of the Rio Grande. On the south side of the same valley is the Acoma Pueblo Grant of 95,792 acres. Only a small part of the Zuñi Pueblo Reservation, an area of 20,000 acres, lies within the county.

The census reports show practically no increase in the population of Valencia for the period since 1880. At that time there were 13,095 people and in 1920 the population was 13,795. Belen is the only incorporated town. In 1870 it had 720 people and 2,253 according to the 1920 census. The following precincts were the only ones which had more than 500 people in 1920: Laguna, 1,092; Cubero, 1,091; Acoma and Rinconada, 1,026; Los Lunas, 937; Jarales, 849; Peralta, 654; and Los Chaves, 610.

The Pueblos of Acoma and Laguna in the central part and El Morro, or Inscription Rock, in the western part of the county are among the interesting places of the United States. Acoma, built on the top of a butte having an area of about ten acres and a height of 360 feet, forms a unique community, which continues its life very much as it did in the period before Europeans first came into the country. Inscription Rock is a sandstone cliff in which a number of inscriptions were carved by Spanish explorers as they passed back and forth between Acoma and Zuñi.

SOCORRO COUNTY CREATED JULY, 1850

Socorro County was named from the Town of Socorro which was given that name by the Onate expedition in 1598 on account of aid received from the Indians at that point. Under the act of January 9, 1852, the region comprised in the county lay between Valencia and Dona Ana and extended from the Texas to the California boundary. The eastern part of the area was made Lincoln County, January 16, 1869. In 1884 the creation of Sierra County further reduced the size of Socorro. The


LAS CRUCES HARDWARE CO.
HARDWARE

SCENES IN LAS CRUCES

most imporant change in the area included in Socorro after 1869 took place in 1921 when the western half was made a separate political subdivision called Catron County. The Rio Grande passes through the center of Socorro from north to South. The Chupadera Mesa, Oscura, and San Andres Mountains form a chain along the eastern border. West of the river are located the Gallinas and Bear mountains in the north and the Magdalena and the San Mateo mountains farther south. The county lies entirely within the Rio Grande drainage basin. The altitude ranges from 4,500 feet along the Rio Grande Valley to 10,000 feet in the mountains. The average annual precipitation at Socorro is eleven inches while at Magdalena in the mountains it is fifteen inches. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Socorro is forty-five degrees and during the months April to October, seventy.

The Santa Fe Railroad built a line along the Rio Grande in 1880 and in the early '80s constructed branches to the metal mines at Magdalena west of the Rio Grande and to the coal mines at Carthage east of the river. The state highway, *El Camino Real,* which follows the Rio Grande across the county has been improved by grading for a distance of about eighty miles. The only other engineered highway extends westward from Socorro through Magdalena to Datil, about forty miles. Thus improved main highways radiate in three directions from Socorro, the county seat.

The rank of Socorro among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, eleventh; in area, first; in number of people to the square mile, thirtieth; in total assessed valuation of property, ninth; in valuation of town property, fourteenth; in valuation of farms, thirteenth; in valuation of livestock, first; in acres of irrigated land, fourteenth; in number of pupils, ninth; and in number of teachers, nineteenth.

The area included in National Forests is large. One division of the Manzano National Forest amounting to 184,225 acres lies in the northeastern part of the county. The part of the Datil National Forest in western Socorro consists of 734,550 acres. These forest areas, with their mountain scenery and hunting, form the principal attractions of the region.

The Town of Socorro increased in population until 1890 when it had 2,295 people, since that time it has decreased, the census of 1920 giving it a population of 1,256. Socorro is the seat of the New Mexico School of Mines. Magdalena, the only other incorporated town in the county, has increased from 300 people in 1900 to 1,963 in 1920. The following precincts were the only ones which had more than 500 people in 1920: San Marcial, 807; Carthage, 601; and San Juan, 553.

DONA ANA COUNTY CREATED JANUARY 9, 1852

Dona Ana County was named from the Town of Dona Ana which according to tradition was named for Colonel Ana's daughter who had been captured by the Apache Indians. The county was created from the southern part of Socorro, January 9, 1852, and extended from the Texas to the California Boundary. The western part of the area was taken to make Grant County, January 30, 1868 and ten years later the eastern part of Dona Ana was added to Lincoln County. The creation of Otero County caused a decrease in the area of Dona Ana, January 30, 1899. A further decrease was made when a part of the county was included in Luna County which was established March 16, 1901. The Rio Grande passes through Dona Ana from the northwest to the southeast. Along the eastern side of the county there is a chain of Mountains including the San Andres, Organ and Franklin mountains. West of the river the country is a mesa land almost without water. The average annual precipitation is eight and one-half inches. The altitude of the region varies between 4,000 and 5,000 feet except in the mountains where it rises to 9,000 feet. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature is forty-eight degrees and during the months April to September, seventy-one.

The Santa Fe Railroad in the early '80s constructed lines in the county from Rincon in the northwestern part to Deming and from Rincon to El Paso. In the same period the Southern Pacific built across the southwestern part of the county. In the early part of the twentieth century, the El Paso and Southwestern constructed a railroad along the southern border of Dona Ana. The improved highways radiate from Las Cruces. The concrete road to El Paso, Texas, from Las Cruces is one of the few paved highways in the state. A section of *El Camino Real* from Las Cruces to Fort Selden and one from Rincon northward to Garfield have been improved. Parts of the road running from Las Cruces to Deming through Aden have been graded. The highway form Las Cruces to Alamogordo has been graded as far as San Augustin Pass in the Organ Mountains.

The rank of Dona Ana among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, sixth; in area, fifteenth; in number of people to the square mile, ninth; in total assessed valuation of property, sixth; in valuation of town property, eleventh; in valuation of farms, fifth; in valuation of livestock, twenty-eighth; in area of irrigated lands, third; in number of pupils, eighth; and in number of teachers, seventh.

Dona Ana has shown an increase in population at the end of each decade since 1870, but the largest increase was between 1910 and 1920, the figure being 12,893 at the former date and

16,548 at the latter. Las Cruces, the only incorporated town in the county, had a population of 2,906 in 1900 and 3,969 in 1920. This is the largest town south of Albuquerque in the Rio Grande Valley in New Mexico, but just across the state line is El Paso, Texas, with a population of 88,000 which is the principal distributing point for a large part of Southern New Mexico. The following precincts of Dona Ana County had more than 500 people in 1920: Mesilla, 1,975; La Union, 1,387; Dona Ana, 1,019; Anthony, 938; San Juan, 900; Chamberino, 708; Rincon, 622; Berino, 601; Garfield, 577; and Colorado, 508.

The irrigation and drainage system of Dona Ana which is under the Elephant Butte storage dam, represents the highest development of irrigation in the state. At State College near Las Cruces are located the New Mexico Agricultural Station and the New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, which were founded in 1889. The Experiment Station has published a series of studies dealing with practically all of the agricultural and livestock problems of the state.

MORA COUNTY CREATED FEBRUARY 1, 1860

Mora County received its name from the Town of Mora which was so called from the mulberry trees found growing in the valley. The county as originally established, February 1, 1860, included a large area in northeastern New Mexico. Mora was reduced in size first when Colfax was created January 25, 1869, next when Union County was organized, February 23, 1893, and finally when Harding County was established March 4, 1921. At present the Canadian River forms the eastern boundary of the region and the Sangre de Cristo Mountains the western limit. The land is drained eastward by the Mora River and Ocaté Creek to the Canadian River. The elevation at Mora is in round numbers 7,000 feet. Truchas Peak, at the point where the boundaries of Mora, Taos and Rio Arriba counties meet, is more than 13,000 feet. The average annual precipitation at the Town of Mora is nineteen inches. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Fort Union is thirty-eight degrees and during the months April to September, sixty-one.

The Santa Fe Railroad constructed across the country from north to south in 1879 is the only railroad within the present boundaries of Mora. The improved highways consist of the road from Colmor to Watrous which is a part of *El Camino Real*, the road from Mora which connects with the main highway leading to Las Vegas; and a part of the highway leading northward from Mora to Taos.

The rank of Mora among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, fourteenth; in area, twenty-ninth; in number of people to the square mile, fifth; in total assessed valuation of property, twenty-third; in valuation of town property, nineteenth; in valuation of farms, seventeenth; in valuation of livestock, twenty-first; in area of irrigated lands, tenth; in number of pupils, tenth; and in number of teachers, fifteenth.

The population of Mora County has not increased rapidly in the period since 1880. This is due in part to cutting down the size of the county. In 1880 Mora had 9,751 people and in 1921 the number was 13,915, but since that time at least 2,500 of the people of western Mora County have been included in the new political sub-division called Harding County. The Town of Mora, the county seat, is located about thirty miles west of the railroad, and for that reason has not grown. Its population dropped from 1,083 in 1870 to 638 in 1890. Since that time it has increased having 1,011 people in 1920. The only incorporated town in the region is Wagon Mound which was established as a trading center after the building of the railroad. It has increased from 449 people in 1890 to 1,775 in 1920. The precincts of Mora having more than 500 people in 1920 were the following: El Rito, 769; Ocaté, 741; Agua Negra, 618; Cleveland, 617; and Coyote, 522.

The western part of Mora to the extent of 90,987 acres is included within the Santa Fe National Forest. Jicarilla Peak, Truchas Peak, Cone Peak and Round Mountain are located in this area. The mountain country of the western part of Mora is the principal attraction offered by this region.

GRANT COUNTY CREATED JANUARY 30, 1868

Grant County was named in honor of General Ulysses S. Grant by the New Mexico Legislature, January 30, 1868. It originally included all of what is now Hidalgo, part of Sierra and part of Luna Counties. The boundary between Grant and Hidalgo provided that a strip of land between Luna and Hidalgo should remain a part of Grant County, the only apparent reason being that Grant County desired to retain within its limits sections of the Southern Pacific Railroad. The county is drained westward by the Gila River with the exception of the southeastern part through which the Mimbres River flows. The Mimbres Range forms the dividing line between Grant and Sierra counties. Diablo and Pinos Altos Ranges occupy the north central area. South of Silver City are the Burro Mountains. The mountains of Grant County form the southern part of the Mogollon mountain mass. The average annual precipitation at Fort Bayard is fifteen inches. The altitude varies from 4,000 feet in the southern part of the region to 6,152 feet at Fort Bayard and to 10,000 feet in the mountains. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Fort Bayard is forty-five degrees and during the months April to September sixty-six. The area included within the Gila National Forest is large, the acreage amounting to 844,264.

A branch railroad was constructed from Deming to Silver City in the early '80s. The Southern Pacific Railroad, built in 1881, passes through the Panhandle of Grant County between Lordsburg and Deming. The El Paso and Southwestern and the Arizona and New Mexico railroads, recently made a part of the Southern Pacific System, cross the southern part of Grant. Branch lines for the development of the mines have been constructed from Whitewater to Santa Rita and Georgetown, from Burro Mountain Junction to Tyrone, and from Silver City to Pinos Altos. The improved roads of the section radiate from Silver City eastward to Hanover and Santa Rita; in a southeastern direction toward Deming; in a southwestern direction through Tyrone to Lordsburg; and to the northwest through Cliff, in the Gila Valley, to the Mogollon Mining District in Catron County.

The rank of Grant among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, fourth; in area, fourteenth; in number of people to the square mile, sixth; in total assessed valuation of property, second; in assessed valuation of farms, twentieth; in assessed valuation of livestock, sixth; in area of irrigated lands, eighteenth; in number of pupils, sixth; and in number of teachers, fifth.

Grant County has steadily increased in population since 1880 when it had 4,539 people. According to the 1920 census there were 21,939 people in the county. Silver City, the county seat, is the only incorporated town, although several of the mining towns are larger. Silver City increased from a village of eighty people in 1870 to a town of 3,217 in 1910. According to the 1920 census it had 2,662 people. The precincts of the county having more than 500 people in 1920 were the following: Tyrone, 4,064; Santa Rita, 3,565; Hurley, 2,959; Central, 2,262; Cliff, 961; Hachita, 777; Fierro, 753; and Hanover, 598.

There are two public institutions in the county: the one, supported by the state; the other, by the United States. The New Mexico State Teachers' College is located at Silver City and the United States Army Hospital at Fort Bayard.

A large number of people are attracted to the country by its excellent climate and the cool summers of the mountains. The ruins of a pre-historic Indian civilization are also of particular interest to anthropologists.

LINCOLN COUNTY CREATED JANUARY 16, 1869

Lincoln County was named for the Town of Lincoln which coming into existence during the period of the Civil war was named for Abraham Lincoln. The original Lincoln County as organized January 16, 1869, consisted of the eastern part of Socorro. To this was added the eastern half of Dona Ana in 1878. During the following eleven years about one-fourth of New Mexico was included in Lincoln County. Chaves and Eddy created from the Pecos Valley part of the region in 1889 limited the extent of Lincoln. The southern part of Lincoln was included in Otero County which was established in 1899. Only minor changes have been made in the area of the county since that time. The northern part of the Sacramento Mountain mass covers the region. The principal mountains are Sierra Blanca, Sierra Capitan, Carilla Mountains and the Tres Cerros. A large area in the eastern part is occupied by a lava bed. The county is drained eastward by the Cienega del Macho, the Rio Hondo and a number of small mountain streams that flow into the Pecos River. The altitude varies between 4,500 and 10,000 feet. The average annual precipitation at Fort Stanton is sixteen inches, in the higher mountains twenty inches is common, while at lower levels in the western part of the area the rainfall is not more than ten inches. During the months from October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Fort Stanton is forty-one degrees and during the months April to September, sixty-two degrees.

Lincoln County had no railroads until the El Paso and Southwestern Railroad was constructed from Corona to Three Rivers across the western part from north to south in the early years of the twentieth century. A branch line was built from Carrizozo to Capitan. The improved roads of the county include the highway from Roswell which branches at Hondo, one part running through Lincoln, Capitan and Nogal to Carrizozo; the other through Ruidoso, across the Mescalero Apache Indian Reservation to Tularosa. The road north from Carrizozo has been graded for a short distance. South from Carrizozo the highway has been improved to the Otero County line.

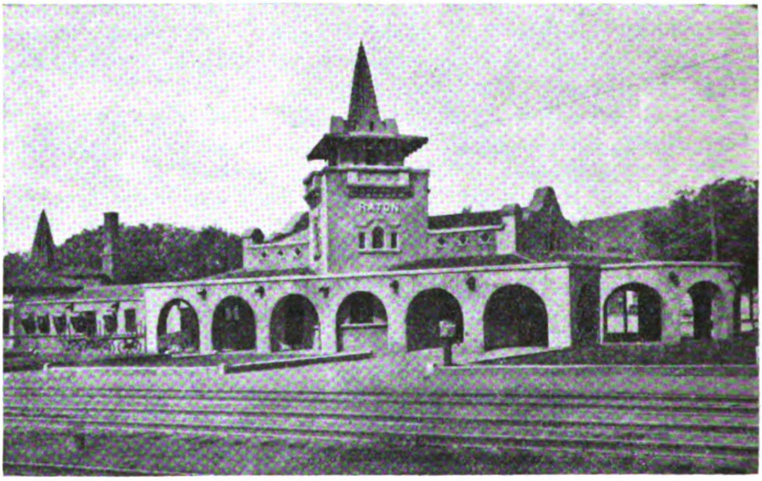
The rank of Lincoln among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, twenty-fourth; in area, ninth; in number of people to the square mile, twenty-second; in total assessed valuation of property, nineteenth; in valuation of town property, seventeenth; in valuation of farms, twenty-fourth; in valuation of livestock, tenth; in area of irrigated lands, twenty-first; in number of pupils, twenty-first; and in number of teachers, eighteenth.

Lincoln County in 1870 had a population of 1,803 and in 1920 it had increased to 7,823. Carrizozo, the county seat, is the only incorporated town in the region. Its population in 1920 was 1,405. The precincts which had more than 500 people in 1920 were the following: San Patricio, 822; Lincoln, 804; Corona, 718; Capitan, 635; and Los Palas, 506.

The mild summer in the mountains of Lincoln County forms the principal attraction of the region. A large body of land in the county is included in the Lincoln National Forest, the area being 444,251 acres. The old Fort Stanton Military Reservation after its abandonment for military purposes was made a United States Marine Hospital.

Colfax County Created January 25, 1869

Colfax County was named for Schuyler Colfax who was vice president of the United States from 1869 to 1873. The county was created January 25, 1869, and originally included practically all of the present Union County, which was established February 23, 1893. The boundaries of Colfax have not been changed since that time. The area is drained by the branches of the Canadian River, principally the Vermejo and the Cimarron, which are the sources of that river. The western border of the region includes a series of high mountains of the Sangre de Cristo Range, including Costilla, Baldy, Taos, and Mora peaks. The western and central parts of the county slope to the Canadian which flows southward. East of the Canadian River a highland divides the rivers flowing into the Canadian and those into the Cimarron which rises in the northern part of Union County and empties into the Arkansas. The mesa land varies in altitude between 5,000 and 9,000 feet and in the mountains it is 13,000 feet. The altitude at Cimarron is 6,385, and the average annual precipitation is fifteen inches. In the mountains it is heavier. During the months of October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Cimarron is thirty-eight degrees and during the months April to September, sixty degrees.



Santa Fe Station, Raton, N. M.

The Santa Fe Railroad constructed a part of its main line across the county from Raton to Colmor in 1879. Several short branches to coal mines were built in the early '80s. Since 1900 railroads have been built from Vernon, through French to

Dawson and from Des Moines through Raton to Cimarron and Ponil; principally for the purpose of opening up coal mining districts. The improved roads of Colfax consist of the road from Raton to Colmor, a part of *El Camino Real;* the highway from Raton through Cimarron to Elizabethtown which leads to Taos; the road from Raton to Des Moines; and the highway from Springer eastward to Clayton.

The rank of Colfax among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, third; in area, thirteenth; in number of people to the square mile, fourth; in total assessed valuation, first; in valuation of town property, third; in valuation of farms, first; in valuation of livestock, fifth; in area of irrigated lands, first; in number of pupils, fourth; and in number of teachers, third.

Colfax has had a steady increase in population rising from 1,992 in 1870 to 21,550 in 1920. Raton, the largest town in the county, increased from 1,255 in 1890 to 5,544 in 1920. The other incorporated towns are Springer, whose population in 1920 was 1,391, Cimarron which had 640 people in that year, and Maxwell which has a population of 774. The precincts of the county having more than 500 people in 1920 were the following: Dawson, 4,045; Koehler, 1,090; Van Houten, 611; Chico, 698; Brilliant, 606; and Newton, 513.

The chief attractions of Colfax County are its mountain scenery and pleasant summer climate. The area of the region included within the Carson National Forest is small consisting of 6,293 acres in the southwestern corner of the county. There are two state institutions located in the county: the State Miners' Hospital at Raton and the State Reform School for Boys at Springer. The large coal fields form an economic attraction which may cause to be established in the near future a high tension power station as a link in interstate electric power lines.

CHAPTER XXXII

THE COUNTIES ESTABLISHED BETWEEN 1879 AND 1925

SIERRA COUNTY CREATED APRIL 3, 1884

Sierra County was so named on account of the mountainous country included within its limits. No change has been made in the boundaries since the creation of the county, April 3, 1884, although some maps show the eastern boundary eighteen miles east of the original and present line. This mistake is due to an act of the Legislature, March 17, 1909, enlarging the county which was disapproved by the United States Congress. The region is drained by the Rio Grande which flows from north to south across the county slightly east of the center. A number of creeks including Alamosa, Cuchillo, Animas, Percha, Tierra Blanca and Berenda run from the mountains in the western part to the Rio Grande. The Black and the Mimbres Range lie along the western border of the county. East of the Rio Grande is the famous stretch of desert country known as the *Jornado del Muerto*. In this district the Fra Cristobal Range extends along the eastern side of the Elephant Butte Reservoir. The southeastern part of Sierra is covered by the Sierra Caballos. The average annual precipitation at Elephant Butte is ten inches. In the mountain areas the precipitation is somewhat greater. The altitude varies from 4,000 feet in the Rio Grande Valley to 10,000 feet in the Mimbres Range. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Elephant Butte is thirty-six degrees and during the months April to September, seventy-one degrees.

The Santa Fe Railroad constructed its line across the eastern part of the region in 1880, following the route of the Jornado del Muerto about ten miles east of the Rio Grande. Early in the '80s a branch line was built from Nutt to Lake Valley in the southern part of Sierra. No other railroads have been built except the branch from Engle to Elephant Butte which was constructed in connection with the building of the Elephant Butte Dam. The roads have been improved along *El Camino Real* north and south of Hot Springs and in the southern part of the area between Arrey and Garfield. A part of the highway between Elephant Butte Dam and Engle has been graded. There is an improved highway running from Lake Valley to Camp Monapah in the Mimbres Range and one from Lake Valley through Hillsboro to Hot Springs.

The rank of Sierra among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, twenty-seventh; in area, twenty-first; in number of people to the square mile, twenty-seventh; in total assessed valuation of property, twenty-seventh; in valuation of town property, twenty-eighth; in valuation of farms, twenty-sixth; in valuation of livestock, twenty-fourth; in area of irrigated lands, sixteenth; in number of pupils, twenty-eighth; and in number of teachers, twenty-ninth. The population of Sierra County has always been small. In 1890 there were 3,360 people which increased to 4,619 in 1920. Hot Springs, which had a population of 468 in 1920, is the only incorporated settlement. The precincts having more than 500 people in 1920 were: Hillsboro, 829; and Cuchillo, 508. Lake Valley, Kingston, Hermosa and Chloride were lively mining camps in the '80s and '90s.

The National Forest area lies in the western part of the county. There are 165,566 acres of the Datil National Forest and 237,182 acres of the Gila National Forest within the limits of Sierra. The mountains, the Elephant Butte Dam and the hot springs nearby; form the principal attractions of this part of New Mexico.

SAN JUAN COUNTY CREATED FEBRUARY 24, 1887

San Juan County was named after the San Juan River which in turn was named for Saint John by the Spaniards in the eighteenth century. The county was created out of the western part of Rio Arriba, February 24. 1887, and the limits have not been changed since that time. The region is drained toward the northwest by the San Juan River. The Chaco drains a large part of the plateau country including the Chusca Mountains on the west. The main valley of the San Juan with its branches, Canyon Largo, La Plata and Las Animas, occupies the northern part. The county lies west of the continental divide in the northwestern corner of the state. The altitudes vary between 4,500 feet and 9,000 feet. Fruitland has an altitude of 4,800 feet and Bloomfield 5,500. The eastern, southern and western parts of the area are high plateaus. The average annual precipitation at Bloomfield is nine inches while at Fruitland it is six inches. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Bloomfield is thirty-seven degrees and during the months April to September, sixty-four.

The Denver and Rio Grande Railroad at Durango, Colorado, was the nearest railway connection for San Juan County until the beginning of the twentieth century when a branch was constructed from Durango through Aztec to Farmington. At the present time attempts are being made to connect the county by rail with the Rio Grande section by way of the Jemez and the Chama Valley. The National Park to Park Highway passes through Aztec, Farmington, Shiprock and Gallup running across the northern and western parts of San Juan. The improved roads of the county are limited to the grading and surfacing in some sections of this highway.

The rank of San Juan among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, twenty-first; in area, sixth; in number of people to the square mile, twenty-sixth; in total assessed valuation of property, thirty-first; in valuation of town property, eighteenth; in valuation of farms, twenty-seventh; in valuation of livestock, thirtieth; in area of irrigated lands, sixth; in number of pupils, twenty-first; and in number of teachers, twenty-third.

The population of San Juan County has increased in recent years due to the drilling of producing oil wells. There were 8,333 people in the county in 1920 which figure included 3,551 Navaho Indians. The only settlements having more than 500 people in 1920 were Farmington which had 1,304 and Aztec, the county seat, whose population was 851.

San Juan has a greater area reserved for Indians than any other county in New Mexico. The Navaho Reservation covers about half of the region, the area being 1,800,000 acres. In addition a part of the Southern Ute Reservation amount to 100,000 acres is included within San Juan.

The chief economic attraction of San Juan at the present is based upon the establishment of a proved oil field. Producing wells have been brought in and others are being drilled. It seems fairly certain that an important field of oil production will be established. The coal and oil may cause to be located in the region a high tension power station at no distant time. The county has attractions for anthropologists. The Aztec ruin near the Town of Aztec has features that are not found in any of the other sites of pre-historic people in New Mexico. In the southeastern corner of San Juan County are located the group of community house ruins that have made the Chaco Canyon National Monument a famous section.

CHAVES COUNTY CREATED FEBRUARY 25, 1889

Chaves County was named for the Chaves family, the most important of whom in the latter part of the nineteenth century was J. Francisco Chaves. The county was created February 25, 1889, from a section of the Pecos Valley which had been a part of Lincoln County. An addition was made to Chaves in 1899 from Lincoln accounting for the peculiar shape of the southwestern part of Chaves. In 1917 the county was reduced in size by including parts of its territory in Lea, Roosevelt and DeBaca counties. The Pecos River runs through the center of the county from north to south. Almost all of the branches of the Pecos in this region flow from the Sacramento Mountain mass on the west; the principal ones being the Rio Hondo, Rio Felix and Rio Penasco. The altitude along the river is 3,500 feet, east of the Pecos 4,500 feet is reached while west of the river in the foothills of the Guadalupe Mountains the altitude is 6,000 feet. The average annual precipitation at Roswell is fourteen inches. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Boaz, northeast of Roswell, is forty-five degrees and during the months April to September, seventy degrees.

Southeastern New Mexico was opened up in the late '80s when work was begun on the Pecos Valley and Northeastern Railroad which was, after a number of years completed from Pecos, Texas, through Carlsbad, Roswell and Portales to Amarillo, Texas. At present this railroad is a part of the Santa Fe System. The improved highways radiate from Roswell. Toward the northeast the road to Portales has been graded. The road to Hondo in Lincoln County, the one southward to Lake Arthur, sections of the highways from Roswell to Tatum and from Lake Arthur to Lovington; have been improved.

Court House
Roswell

COURT HOUSE, ROSWELL

The rank of Chaves among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, thirteenth; in area, fifth; in number of people to the square mile, twenty-first; in total assessed valuation of property, fourth; in valuation of town property, fourth; in valuation of farms, third; in valuation of livestock, second; in area of irrigated lands, seventh; in number of pupils, twelfth; and in number of teachers, tenth.

Chaves increased rapidly in population between 1900 and 1910, but decreased in the following decade, the figures being 16,850 in 1910 and 12,975 in 1920. Roswell, which includes more than one-half of the people of the county, increased from 6,172 to 7,033 during the period from 1910 to 1920. There are three other incorporated settlements, namely: Dexter, 1,026; Hagerman, 593; and Lake Arthur, 268.

Irrigation from artesian wells has made Chaves attractive and has been a large factor in the development of the county since 1890. It was in that year that the first artesian well was drilled on the property of Nathan Jaffa at Roswell. The proved field by 1907 was estimated to be seventy-five miles in length and twenty miles in width. The flowing wells showed a decrease in volume in the period between 1910 and 1920 and the pumped wells an increase for the same decade. The failure of the Hondo Project was a decided set-back to irrigation in the vicinity of Roswell. The area included in the Lincoln National Forest in the southwestern corner of the county amounts to 46,407 acres. Roswell has the educational attraction of a junior college and military school, the New Mexico Military Institute, which has steadily increased its equipment and student body since its founding in the early '90s.

Chesterfield

MAIN STREET, ROSWELL

EDDY COUNTY CREATED FEBRUARY 25, 1889.

Eddy County which was named for Charles B. Eddy, one of the early promoters of what is now the Carlsbad Irrigation Project, was created February 25, 1889, from the southeastern part of Lincoln. The only important change in the territory included was made in 1917 when the eastern part was taken to form the southern section of Lea County. The Pecos River runs through the region from north to south slightly east of the center. The branches of the Pecos are all on the western side having their sources in the Guadalupe Mountains. These branches are the Rio Penasco, Four Mile Creek, Seven Rivers, Dark Canyon and Black River. The altitude at Carlsbad is 3,120 feet. Westward the land rises to the Guadalupe Mountains where the highest points are 9,000 feet. The average annual precipitation at Carlsbad is fourteen inches. During the months of October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Carlsbad is fifty-one degrees and during the months April to September, seventy-four degrees.

The railroad facilities have not been extended since the building of the line along the Pecos in the early '90s. The improved roads of Eddy County consist of the main highway along the Pecos River from Lake Arthur through Carlsbad to Malaga and branches from Artesia to Hope, Carlsbad to Monument in Lea County, and from Carlsbad southwestward to Blue Springs on the Black River.

The rank of Eddy among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, nineteenth; in area, twelfth; in number of people to the square mile, twentieth; in total assessed valuation of property, fifteenth; in valuation of town property, ninth; in valuation of farms, eighth; in valuation of livestock, twelfth; in area of irrigated lands, fourth; in number of pupils, sixteenth; and in number of teachers, sixteenth.

The population of Eddy increased rapidly between 1900 and 1910, but decreased from 12,400 in 1910 to 9,116 in 1920. Carlsbad, the county seat, had a population of 2,969 in 1920. The other incorporated towns were Artesia, whose population in 1920 was 1,658; and Hope, which had 811 people in that year. The precincts of Eddy having a population of more than 500 in 1920 were the following: Loving, 1,091; Otis, 839; and Malaga, 559.

The Carlsbad Irrigation Project is the basis for the attraction of people to Eddy County. In addition to the lands irrigated by the Project a large area is watered by pumped and flowing artesian wells. In the southwestern half of the county 134,667 acres of the Guadalupe Mountains are comprised within the Lincoln National Forest. In the last few years a new economic interest has attracted a number of people interested in oil production. It is the opinion of many informed persons that a proved oil field will develop in the Artesia district. The Carlsbad Cavern National Monument, thirty miles southwest of Carlsbad, has been pronounced one of the natural wonders of the world. It, no doubt, will attract a large number of visitors to the county as it becomes better known.

GUADALUPE COUNTY CREATED FEBRUARY 26, 1891

Guadalupe County was named for Our Lady of Guadalupe, the patron saint of Mexico. The original county, created February 26, 1891, remained unchanged until 1903 when parts of the region were included in the new counties of Quay and Roosevelt. The name was changed to Leonard Wood County in the same year, but in 1905 the old name was restored. Guadalupe was further reduced in 1917 when DeBaca County was established. The region is drained by the Pecos River which flows from northwest to southeast across the county. The principal tributary on the west is Pintada Canyon and on the east the Alamo Gordo Creek. The altitude at Santa Rosa is 4,624 feet and in the western part of the region, 6,000 feet. The average annual precipitation is fourteen inches. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Santa Rosa is forty-five degrees and during the months April to September, sixty-nine degrees.

Guadalupe County had no railroads until the beginning of the twentieth century. The Rock Island System built across the county from northeast to southwest in 1901 and a few years later the Santa Fe Railroad constructed a line which crosses the southern part from east to west. The railroads cross at the Town of Vaughn. The improved roads include the one running from Santa Rosa to Anton Chico, the one from Santa Rosa to Fort Sumner, and the one from Santa Rosa to Cuervo which is a part of the highway to Tucumcari. There is also a stretch of improved road running southwest from Vaughn.

The rank of Guadalupe among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, twenty-second; in area, twenty-second; in number of people to the square mile, sixteenth; in total assessed valuation of property, eighteenth; in valuation of town property, twenty-second; in valuation of farms, twenty-third; in valuation of livestock, eighteenth; in area of irrigated lands, twenty-second; in number of pupils, nineteenth; and in number of teachers, seventeenth.

The population of Guadalupe increased, due to the building of the railroads, from 5,429 in 1900 to 10,927 in 1910. In the following decade the number of people decreased to 8,015. Santa Rosa, the county seat and the largest town, had a population of 1,390 in 1920. The only other incorporated settlement was Vaughn which had 888 people in 1920. The precincts having more than 500 people in 1920 were the following: Pintada, 606; and Anton Chico, 597.

UNION COUNTY CREATED FEBRUARY 13, 1893.

Union County appears to have received its name due to the united desire of the people of the eastern parts of San Miguel, Mora and Colfax counties to establish a county government. The county, created February 13, 1893, was reduced in area in

1903 and 1907 when parts of the region were included in Quay County. A further reduction took place in 1921 when the Ute Valley was made a part of Harding County. The western part of the region, which is a rough foot-hill country, has an altitude of about 6,000 feet while the eastern section is lower and in part, plains, the altitude at Clayton being 5,178 feet. The region is drained eastward by rivers and creeks that flow into the Cimarron and Canadian rivers, branches of the Arkansas. The Cimarron River, Corrumpa Creek, Cieneguilla Creek, Perico Creek, Carrizo Creek, and Major Long's Creek are the most important of these streams. A small area in the southwestern part is drained by the headwaters of Ute Creek which flows south into the Canadian River. The average annual precipitation at Clayton is seventeen inches. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Clayton is forty-one degrees and during the months April to September it is sixty-six degrees.

The Colorado and Southern Railroad constructed a line across the region from Emory Gap to Texline in the early '90s. No other railroad development has taken place except the building of the railroad from Des Moines to Raton in 1907 which is at present a part of the Santa Fe System. The improved highways consist of the one from Texline through Clayton and Des Moines to Capulin, the road from Clayton southward to Centerville and the highway from Clayton westward to Springer in Colfax County.

The rank of Union among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, tenth; in area, sixteenth; in number of people to the square mile, fourteenth; in total assessed valuation of property, seventh; in valuation of town property, twelfth; in valuation of farms, second; in valuation of livestock, eighth; in area of irrigated lands, twentieth; in number of pupils, seventh; and in number of teachers, fourth.

The population of Union increased from 4,528 in 1900 to 16,680 in 1920. The reduction in the area of the county in 1921 probably decreased the population at least 3,000. Clayton, the county seat, has increased from 750 people in 1900 to 3,384 in 1920. Des Moines, the only other incorporated settlement, had a population of 1,140 in 1920. The precincts having more than 500 people in 1920 were the following: Folsom, 761; and Grenville, 706.

Dry farming, some irrigated farming and cattle raising are the principal economic attractions of the region. The Capulin National Monument is of interest on account of the perfect cone of the extinct volcano of Capulin Mountain which is located a few miles west of Des Moines in the northwestern part of the county.

OTERO COUNTY CREATED JANUARY 30, 1899

Otero County was named for Miguel A. Otero, who was territorial governor of New Mexico at the time of the creation of the county, January 30, 1899. Otero was made from the southern part of Lincoln and the eastern part of Dona Ana. The boundaries of Otero have not been changed since the county was established. The northeastern section is drained eastward by the Penasco and other streams of the Pecos River. The southeastern part is drained southward by the Sacramento River. The region between the Sacramento Mountains and the mountains in Socorro and Dona Ana counties, the San Andres and Organ mountains, is called the Alamogordo Basin. The streams of this part flow into lakes which have no outlets. The Sierra Blanca Mountains occupy a northern section, the Gypsum Hills are in the northwestern part, the Hueco Mountains in the southwestern, and the Guadalupe Mountains in the southeastern section. These mountains are all a part of the Sacramento Mountain mass. The altitude of the region ranges between 4,000 feet in the Alamogordo Basin and 10,000 feet in the mountains. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Alamogordo is forty-nine degrees and during the months April to September, seventy-two degrees.

Otero was a region without railroads until the beginning of the twentieth century when the El Paso and Northwestern was constructed from north to south through the eastern part of the region. At the same time a branch line was built from Alamogordo to Cloudcroft. The improved highways of the county include the road from Alamogordo southward to Orogrande, from Alamogordo northward to Three Rivers and from Tularosa northeastward to Ruidoso. Some improvements have also been made on the highway between Alamogordo and Cloudcroft.

The rank of Otero among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, twenty-third; in area, third; in number of people to the square mile, twenty-eighth; in total assessed valuation of property, seventeenth; in valuation of town property, fifteenth; in valuation of farms, twenty-second; in valuation of livestock, seventeenth; in area of irrigated lands, seventeenth; in number of pupils, eighteenth; and in number of teachers, twenty-second.

The population of Otero increased from 4,791 in 1900 to 7,069 in 1910. In 1920 the county had 7,920 people. Alamogordo, the county seat and the largest town, increased in population from 518 in 1890 to 2,583 in 1920. Tularosa, the only other incorporated town, had 572 people in 1890 and 1,387 in 1920. Only one precinct had more than 500 people in 1920, namely: Orogrande, 521.

Large sections of Otero are included in Federal reservations. The Mescalero Apache Indian Reservation in the northeastern part of the region consists of 474,240 acres. The Lincoln National Forest in Otero has an area of 409,318 acres.

One of the state institutions, the New Mexico School for the Blind, is located at Alamogordo.

The chief economic attractions are farming by irrigation, stock raising, and lumbering. At Cloudcroft, east of Alamogordo, following the building of the railroad into the mountains, the company built a lodge, in 1900, to attract summer visitors. Large numbers of people are attracted to the Sacramento Mountains by the cool summers.

McKINLEY COUNTY CREATED FEBRUARY 23, 1899

McKinley County named for President McKinley was established due to the increased population in the western part of Bernalillo County. The original area of McKinley was enlarged on the eastern and southern sides on March 18, 1901. All of the region, except the southeastern section, lies west of the continental divide. The Mount Taylor Range is in the southeastern part of the county. West of the divide the Zuñi Mountains are drained westward by the Rio Puerco of the west and the Zuñi River, branches of the Little Colorado. The northwestern section is drained northward by the headwaters of the Chaco River which is a branch of the San Juan. Thus the county includes parts of the three drainage basins; the Rio Grande, San Juan and Little Colorado. The altitude at Fort Wingate is 7,000 feet. In the mountainous districts the altitudes vary from 8,000 to 10,000 feet. The average annual rainfall at Fort Wingate is fourteen inches. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Fort Wingate is thirty-eight degrees and from the months April to September, sixty-three degrees.

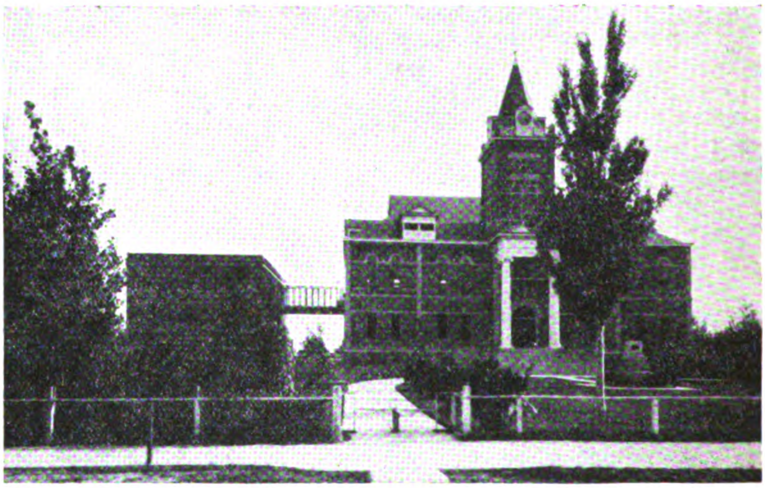
The Santa Fe Railroad built across the southwestern section of the region in the early '80s and made possible the opening of coal mines, which was one of the important economic developments. The only branch line is the Zuñi Mountain Railway, a timber road running from Thoreau to Kettner in Valencia County. The improved roads of the region radiate from Gallup. The main highway from Valencia to the Arizona line has been resurfaced. The road extending southward to Ramah and the one northward to the San Juan County line has also been graded. There are no improved highways in the eastern part of McKinley County.

The rank of McKinley among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, ninth; in area, seventh; in number of people to the square mile, seventeenth; in total assessed valuation of property, tenth; in valuation of town property, sixth; in valuation of farms, twenty-first; in valuation of livestock, twenty-seventh; in area of irrigated lands, nineteenth;

in number of pupils, twentieth; and in number of teachers, twentieth.

The population of McKinley has increased slightly in recent years. The number of people in 1910 was 12,963 and in 1920 it was 13,371. Of this number 3,159 were Navaho and Zuñi Indians. Gallup, the county seat, is the only incorporated town in the county. It increased from 2,204 people in 1910 to 3,920 in 1920. The precincts having more than 500 people in 1920 were the following: Clarksville, 977; Crown Point, 872; Navajo, 733; Allison, 628; Gibson, 626; and Catalpa, 551.

A large area in McKinley is included within Federal reservations. The southeastern part of the Navajo Reservation amounting to about 500,000 acres covers the northwestern part of the county. The Zuñi Reservation occupies 200,000 acres in the southwestern section. The Fort Wingate Military Reservation consists of 64,000 acres. The areas included in the Manzano National Forest lie in the southern half of the county and amount to 153,638 acres.



LUNA COUNTY COURT HOUSE, DEMING

The attractions of McKinley of an economic nature consist of coal mining, cattle raising and a limited amount of agriculture by irrigation. The anthropologist finds many attractions in the Navaho and Zuñi country; in the Chaco Canyon and the Inscription Rock districts which are most conveniently reached from Gallup. The Inter-Tribal Indian Ceremonial which is held annually during the latter part of August at Gallup has interested large numbers of people.

LUNA COUNTY CREATED MARCH 16, 1901

Luna County named for Solomon Luna was created by the Territorial Legislature from the western part of Dona Ana and the eastern part of Grant County on March 16, 1901. It is one of the three counties of New Mexico that has a common bounary with the Republic of Mexico, the other two being Dona Ana and Hidalgo. The region lies between Rio Grande and the Gila Drainage Basin, but belongs to neither. It is a small closed basin into which the Mimbres River flows from the southern part of the Mogollon Mountain mass. The river disappears east of Deming. In the eastern part from north to south there are three districts marked by Cooks Range, Florida Mountains and Florida Plains. In the western part the Antelope Plains and the Victoria Mountains are the principal physical features. The altitude ranges between 3,800 and 5,000 feet. The annual average precipitation at Deming is ten inches. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature is forty-eight degrees and during the months April to September, seventy-one degrees.

The Santa Fe Railroad and the Southern Pacific Railroad built lines in the region in the early '80s. The Santa Fe lines consist of the road from Nutt to Deming and the one from Deming to Silver City in Grant County. The Southern Pacific passes from east to west through the center of the county. The El Paso and Southwestern Railroad in the early years of the twentieth century constructed a road from east to west across Luna close to the Mexican border and also built a branch northward from Hermanas to Deming. The improved roads in characteristic form radiate from Deming, the county seat. Eastward and westward from Deming the highways have been surfaced. A graded road extends from Deming southward to Columbus on the Mexican border. Northwestward from Deming an improved road connects with the one in Grant County which leads to Silver City.

The rank of Luna among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, twelfth; in area, twentieth; in number of people to the square mile, tenth; in total assessed valuation of property, thirteenth; in valuation of town property, tenth; in valuation of farms, twenty-ninth; in valuation of livestock, fifteenth; in area of irrigated lands, thirteenth; in number of pupils, twenty-fourth; and in number of teachers, twenty-fourth.

The population of Luna increased from 3,913 in 1910 to 12,270 in 1920. However, a part of this increase was of a temporary kind since it included 4,064 soldiers stationed at Camp Furlong, near Columbus. Deming had a population of 1,341 in 1900 and in 1920 it was 4,654. Columbus, the only other incorporated town, increased from 268 people in 1910 to 6,536 in 1920. The precincts having more than 200 people in 1920 were the following: Hondale, 308; Cambray, 266; and Mimbres, 257.

The economic attractions consist of farming by irrigation and stock raising. Deming is an important railroad center. Columbus became a well-known place due to the raid of the Mexican bandit, Villa, and the punitive expedition sent into Mexico from that place in 1917.

QUAY COUNTY CREATED JANUARY 28, 1903

Quay County named for United States Senator Quay of Pennsylvania was created from the southern part of Union and the eastern part of Guadalupe on January 28, 1903. In 1909 a part of the territory was included in Curry County and an additional section of Union was added to Quay. The limits have remained unchanged since that time. The region is drained by the Canadian River, which runs from west to east across the northern part of the county, with the exception of a small area in the southwestern part of the county which is drained by Taiban Creek, a branch of the Pecos River. The chief southern branches of the Canadian in Quay are Pajarito, Tucumcari and San Juan Creeks. The country is a rolling prairie cut up by canyons, similar in physical features to the western plains of Texas of which, geographically, it forms a part. The altitude ranges between 3,900 and 4,500 feet. The average annual precipitation at Tucumcari is sixteen inches. During the months of October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at San Jon is forty-five degrees and during the months April to September, seventy-one degrees.

The Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific Railroad was constructed across the northern part of Quay early in the twentieth century running from Nara Visa through Tucumcari to Santa Rosa in Guadalupe County. A railroad through the center of the region from Tucumcari to Amarillo, Texas, was also constructed as a part of the Rock Island System. Only a few miles of the Rock Island branch line from Tucumcari to Dawson is within the county. Improved highways have been built from Tucumcari northeastward to Logan; from Tucumcari eastward to the state line; from Tucumcari southward to Ragland; and from Tucumcari westward to the Guadalupe County line.

The rank of Quay amoung the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, seventeenth; in area, twenty-third; in number of people to the square mile, twelfth; in total assessed valuation, eleventh; in valuation of town property, thirteenth; in valuation of farms, sixth; in valuation of livestock, thirteenth; in area of irrigated lands, twenty-fifth; in number of pupils, fifteenth; and in number of teachers, eighth.

The population of Quay decreased from 14,912 in 1910 to 10,444 in 1920. Tucumcari, the county seat, and the only incorporated town, increased from 3,349 in 1910 to 3,830 people in

1920. The precincts of Quay having a population of more than 400 in 1920 were the following: Nara Visa, 651; Forrest, 511; Logan, 488; Rana, 410; and San Jon, 404.

The chief economic attractions of Quay County are dry farming and stock raising. Tucumcari is an important railroad center.

ROOSEVELT COUNTY CREATED FEBRUARY 28, 1903

Roosevelt County named for Theodore Roosevelt was created from parts of Guadalupe and Chaves counties on February 28, 1903. A part of the region was taken in 1909 to form the southern part of Curry County. The boundaries were again changed in 1917; a part of Roosevelt being included in De Baca and a section of Chaves being added to Roosevelt. No further changes have been made. The only stream in the region is Taiban Creek which drains the northwestern section into the Pecos River. The rest of Roosevelt is without rivers which have outlets—the small streams terminating in sinks. The country is a rolling plain forming a part of the Great Plains area. The altitude varies between 4,000 feet and 4,500 feet. The average annual precipitation is nineteen inches. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Portales is forty-four degrees and during the months April to September, sixty-nine degrees.

The first railroad to pass through Roosevelt was the Pecos Valley and Northeastern which was constructed in 1898. It became a part of the Santa Fe System in 1901. This road runs from Kenna in the southwestern part to Cameo in the northeastern section. The populating of this region followed the building of the railroad. The northwestern part of the county is crossed by the Santa Fe Railroad which was built from Clovis to Belen in 1907. The only improved highways are those that parallel the railroads. The sections between Cameo and Portales, and between Elida and Kenna have been surfaced, and the section between Elida and Portales has been graded. The road from Cantara to Tolar, which is a part of the highway between Clovis and Fort Sumner, has been graded.

The rank of Roosevelt among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, twenty-fifth; in area, twenty-sixth; in number of people to the square mile, thirteenth; in total assessed valuation of property, twentieth; in valuation of town property, twenty-third; in valuation of farms, ninth; in valuation of livestock, eleventh; in area of irrigated lands, twenty-eighth; in number of pupils, twenty-second; and in number of teachers, eleventh.

Roosevelt suffered a very large decrease in population between 1910 and 1920, the figure being 12,064 at the former date and 6,548 at the latter. Portales, the county seat, increased from 1,292 people in 1910 to 1,953 in 1920. Elida, the only other incorporated settlement, had a population of 651 in 1920. The precincts having more than 200 people in 1920 were the following: Emzy, 286; Milnesand, 267; Carter, 252; Causey, 234; Inez, 217; and Floyd, 210.

The chief economic attractions are dry farming, farming under irrigation from pumped wells and the raising of livestock.

SANDOVAL COUNTY CREATED MARCH 10, 1903

Sandoval County named for the Sandoval family of New Mexico was created from the northern part of Bernalillo on March 10, 1903. No important changes have been made in the limits of Sandoval. The Jemez Mountains and the Jemez Plateau cover the northern half of the county. The Rio Grande flows across the southeastern section. North of the Jemez Valley short streams such as the Rito de los Frijoles, Canyon de Cochiti, Canyon de Alamo and Peralta Canyon drain the eastern side of the Jemez Plateau and flow into the Rio Grande. The two upper branches of the Jemez River, San Diego Canyon and Guadalupe Canyon, carry streams that drain the Jemez Mountains southward to their junction to form the Jemez which flows southeastward to the Rio Grande. The western part of Sandoval is drained southward by the Rio Puerco which rises in the northwestern part of the county. The Puerco Valley is separated from the Jemez Valley by the Nacimiento Mountains and the Mesa Prieta. The altitude varies between 5,000 feet in the Rio Grande Valley, 6,100 feet at Jemez Springs and 11,266 at Pelado Peak. The average annual precipitation ranges from nine inches in the Rio Grande Valley, to eighteen inches at Jemez Springs and to twenty inches in the higher mountains. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Jemez Springs is thirty-eight degrees and during the months April to September it is sixty-one degrees.

The Santa Fe Railroad was built across the southeastern corner of the region in 1880 from Santo Domingo through the town of Bernalillo to the Sandia Pueblo. Thus the county has been without railroads except along the Rio Grande Valley. At the present time the Santa Fe and Northwestern Railroad is building up the Jemez Valley, across the Puerco Valley and northward to Cuba, with the intention of continuing the road down the San Juan Valley to Farmington. The improved highways consist of the one from Alameda through Bernalillo to Santo Domingo; the one from Buckman to Rio Frijoles; and a part of the highway between Bernalillo and San Ysidro.

The rank of Sandoval among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, twentieth; in area, seventeenth; in number of people to the square mile, nineteenth; in total assessed valuation of property, thirtieth; in assessed valuation of town property, thirty-first; in valuation of farms, twenty-eighth; in valuation of livestock, twenty-ninth; in area of irrigated lands, eighth; in number of pupils, twenty-third; and in number of teachers, twenty-sixth.

The population of Sandoval did not increase in the decade between 1910 and 1920, the number being 8,579 at the former date and 8,863 at the latter. There were no incorporated towns in 1921. The precincts having more than 500 people in 1920 were the following: Pena Blanca, 1,895; Algodones, 1,055; Bernalillo, 988; Jemez Springs, 715; Cuba, 691; La Jara, 619; Gonzalitos, 551; and Corrales, 550.

Sandoval has a larger number of Indian grants and reservations than any other county in the state. The Santa Clara Reservation lies partly in the county, the extent being 30,000 acres. This reserve is in the northeastern corner of Sandoval. South of Santa Clara is the Cochiti Pueblo Grant of 24,256 acres. Adjoining the Cochiti Grant on the south is the Santo Domingo Pueblo Grant, about 60,000 acres of which is in Sandoval. Santo Domingo is joined on the south by the San Felipe Pueblo Grant which includes 34,767 acres. Almost all of the Sandia Pueblo, lying south of the town of Bernalillo, is within Sandoval, the area being 24,000 acres. There are three Pueblo grants in the Jemez Valley, namely: Santa Ana, 17,361 acres; Sia, 17,515 acres; and Jemez, 40,550 acres. The northwestern part of Sandoval County is partly covered by a section of the Jicarilla Apache Reservation amounting to 138,000 acres. Two of the New Mexico national forests lie partly in Sandoval. The Manzano National Forest area within the county amounts to 36,587 acres in the southeastern and the extreme western part of the region. The Santa Fe National Forest in the northeastern part includes 295,029 acres.

Sandoval County is probably the largest field for the study of present and past culture of the Pueblo Indians. This constitutes one of the chief attractions of the section. The Bandelier National Monument in the northeastern part was created to protect the prehistoric ruins which include the Pueblo and cliff ruins of Rio de los Frijoles and the adjoining canyons and mesas. Jemez Springs, in San Diego Canyon, has mineral water in the heart of the mountains. The economic attractions include coal, which has recently resulted in the building of the railroad to the Hagan coal mines, and timber, as well as coal and other minerals, which are the basis for the construction of the railroad up the Jemez Valley.

TORRANCE COUNTY CREATED MARCH 16, 1903

Torrance County was named for Francis J. Torrance, one of the promoters connected with the building of the New Mexico Central Railroad. The county was created March 16, 1903, principally from the eastern part of Valencia, but also from parts of the surrounding counties. No important changes have been made in the limits since the county was established. The region is a unit geographically. The Estancia Valley is an inland basin entirely within the county. The streams from the Manzano Mountains flow into the basin and disappear in sinks. The Hills of Pedernal east of the center of the region form the divide between the Estancia Basin and the Pecos Valley, Pintada Canyon having a small creek which drains the northeastern part of the county into the Pecos River. The saline deposits in the Estancia Valley furnished the salt supply for the early Spanish settlers and the Indians of the neighboring country. Torrance County is in the center of the state and contains the center of distribution of the population. The altitude ranges between 6,100 feet at Estancia and 10,000 feet in the Manzano Mountains. The annual precipitation varies between thirteen inches at Estancia and twenty-five inches in parts of the mountains. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Estancia is thirty-eight degrees and during the months April to September, sixty-one degrees.

There were no railroads in the region until the building of the New Mexico Central Railroad in 1902 from Moriarity through Estancia and Willard to Torrance, except the Rock Island Railroad, which traversed the southeastern corner of the county from Vaughn to Corona. With the building by the Santa Fe Railroad of the line from Clovis to Belen from east to west through the center of the region striking Encino, Willard and Abo Pass, Torrance obtained exceptional railroad facilities for a New Mexico county. The improved highways consist of the one running north from Willard through Estancia, which connects with Albuquerque; one from Willard to Abo Pass; and one from Willard to Vaughn.

The rank of Torrance among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, eighteenth; in area, nineteenth; in number of people to the square mile, fifteenth; in total assessed valuation of property, sixteenth; in valuation of town property, twentieth; in valuation of farms, fifteenth; in valuation of livestock, sixteenth; in area of irrigated lands, twenty-seventh; in number of pupils, seventeenth; and in number of teachers, fourteenth.

The population of Torrance increased rapidly between 1900 and 1910, decreased only slightly between 1910 and 1920, there being 10,119 at the former date and 9,731 at the latter, but since that time figures would probably show a considerable decrease due to several dry seasons. Estancia, the county seat, had 1,024 people in 1920. Mountainair and Willard were the only other incorporated towns. In 1920 the population of Mountainair was 852 and Willard, 774. The precincts having more than 500 people in 1920 were: Manzano, 752; Duran, 660; Wilson, 629; Torreon, 615; and Moriarity, 549.

The chief economic interest which attracted people to the Estancia Valley was dry farming. The New Mexico pinto bean was successfully raised for several years, but recent dry seasons have caused crop failures. The land is fertile but there is no surface water except in the small mountain valleys. The archaeologist, anthropologist and tourist find much of interest along the east side of the Manzano Mountains in the form of pueblo ruins and the ruins of large mission churches built prior to 1680. The Gran Quivira National Monument was created to preserve the ruins of the pueblo and church which is located twenty miles due south of Willard. The only other lands reserved by the Federal Government in the county are in the National Forests. A division of the Lincoln National Forest, including 88,988 acres, and 150,072 acres of the Manzano National Forest are located in the southern and the western part of Torrance County.

CURRY COUNTY CREATED FEBRUARY 25, 1909

Curry County, named for former territorial governor of New Mexico, George Curry, was created from parts of Roosevelt and Quay counties on Febuary 25, 1909. The county is a prairie country, a part of the Great Plains. Blanco Creek and Blanco Canyon drain the center of the region eastward and constitute some of the source branches of the Red River which flows into the Mississippi in Louisiana. The altitude ranges between 4,100 feet and 5,000 feet. The average annual precipitation at Clovis is eighteen inches. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature is forty-three degrees and during the months April to September, seventy degrees.

The Pecos Valley and Northeastern Railroad was built to Clovis in 1898. Before another ten years passed the Santa Fe Railroad constructed a line across the southern part of the county from Texico through Clovis to Cantara. The improved roads of the region are the highway from Texico to Cantara; the one southward from Clovis to Cameo; and the one northward from Clovis through Claud to Grady.

The rank of Curry among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, fifteenth; in area, thirtieth; in number of people to the square mile, second; in total assessed valuation, twelfth; in valuation of town property, seventh; in valuation of farms, seventh; in valuation of livestock, fourteenth; in area of irrigated lands, twenty-sixth; in number of pupils, fifteenth; and in number of teachers, eighth.

The population of Curry did not change between 1910 and 1920: at the former date it was 11,443 and at the latter it was 11,236. Clovis, the county seat, increased in number of people from 3,255 in 1910 to 5,901 in 1920. Texico, with a population in 1920 of 929, and Melrose, which had 902 people in 1920, are the only other incorporated towns in the county. The precincts having more than 400 people in 1920 were: Blacktower, 500; Grady, 460; Bellview, 429; and Hollene, 404.

DE BACA COUNTY, CREATED FEBRUARY 28, 1917

De Baca County, named for former governor of New Mexico, Ezequiel Cabeza de Baca, was created from parts of Guadalupe, Roosevelt and Chaves counties on February 28, 1917. The Pecos River runs through the center of the county from north to south. On the west side the region is drained by Salado, Yeso and Conejos creeks and on the east side by Taiban, Buffalo and Cedar creeks. The country is an upland, rolling mesa ranging in altitude between 4,800 and 5,300 feet. In the Pecos Valley it is lower, being 3,960 feet at Fort Sumner. The average annual precipitation at Fort Sumner is fourteen inches. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature is forty-four degrees and during the months April to September, sixty-nine degrees.

The Santa Fe Railroad was constructed from east to west across the region somewhat north of the center in 1907. No other railroads have been built in the county. The improved roads consist of the one running northwestward from Fort Sumner to Santa Rosa; one eastward to Tolar from Fort Sumner and a short stretch of highway southward from Fort Sumner.

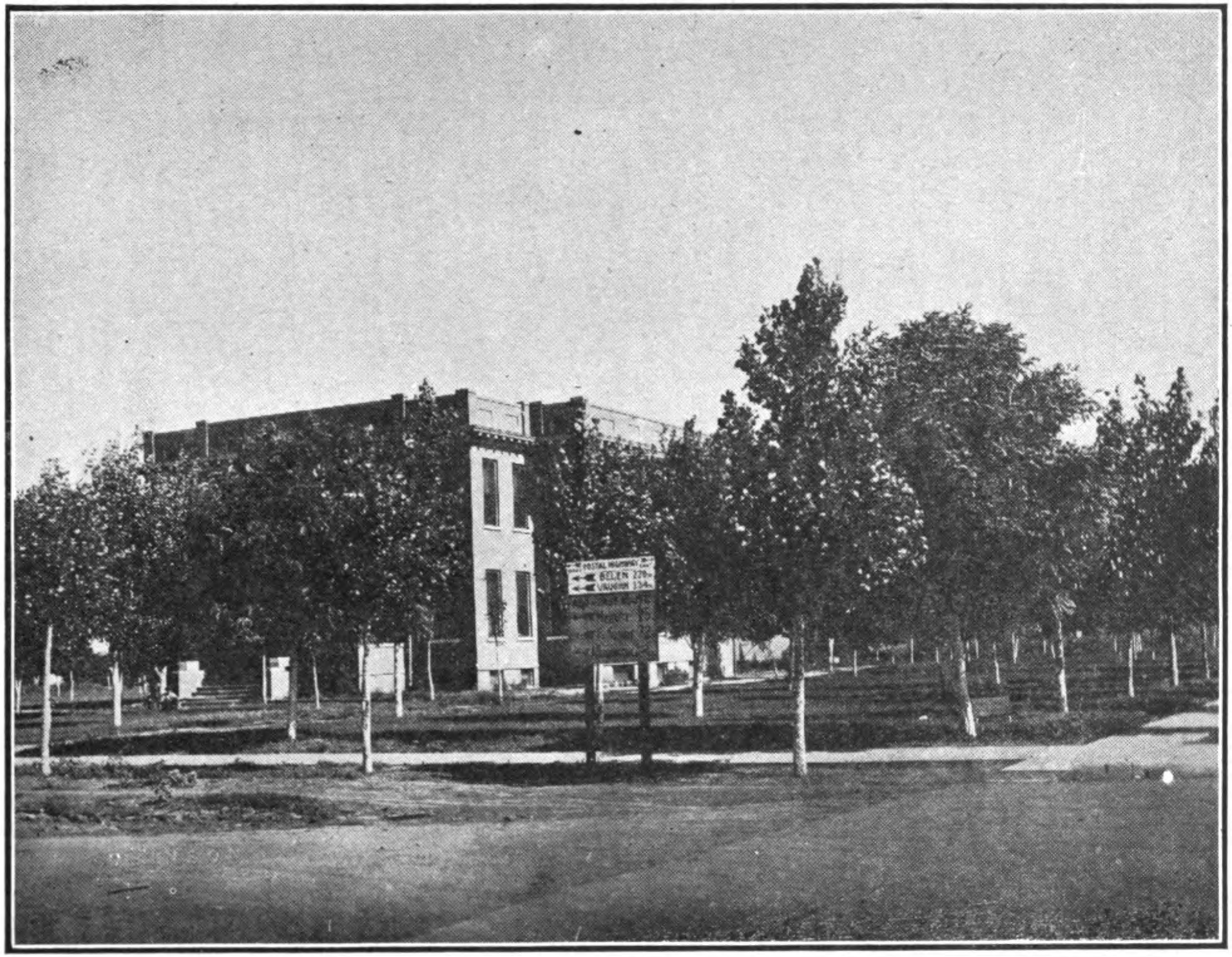
The rank of De Baca among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, thirty-one; in area, twenty-fourth; in number of people to the square mile, twenty-fifth; in total assessed valuation, twenty-fourth; in valuation of town property, twenty-sixth; in valuation of farms, twenty-fifth; in valuation of livestock, twenty-second; in area of irrigated lands, twenty-third; in number of pupils, thirtieth, and in number of teachers, thirtieth.

The population of De Baca County in 1920 was 3,196. Fort Sumner, the county seat, the only incorporated town in the region, had 1,169 people in 1920. The following precincts had more than 200 people in 1920: Taiban, 312; Ricardo, 291; Yeso, 249; Locust Grove, 224; and Ingleville, 214.

LEA COUNTY CREATED MARCH 7, 1917

Lea County, named for Joseph C. Lea, a pioneer leader of Chaves County, was organized from the eastern part of Chaves and Eddy counties on March 7, 1917. The region is a rolling prairie, a part of the Llano Estacado, or Staked Plains, having no rivers. The altitude at Knowles is 4,300 feet and there is little variations from this figure. The average annual precipitation at Knowles is fifteen inches. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Knowles is forty-seven degrees and during the months April to October, seventy-one degrees.

Lea is one of the few counties of New Mexico which has no railroad facilities. The improved roads consist of the one from


POSTAL HIGHWAY
BELEN 279
VAUGHN 134

County Court House, Clovis

Lovington through Pearl, which leads to Carlsbad, and one from Lovington eastward to the Texas boundary.

The rank of Lea among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, thirtieth; in area, eleventh; in number of people to the square mile, thirtieth; in total assessed valuation of property, twenty-sixth; in valuation of town property, twenty-ninth; in valuation of farms, eighteenth; in valuation of livestock, fourth; in area of irrigated lands, thirtieth; in number of pupils, twenty-seventh; and in number of teachers, twenty-fifth.

The population of Lea County in 1920 was 3,545. Lovington, the county seat and the only incorporated town in the region, had 846 people in 1920. The precincts having more than 200 people in 1920 were: Plainview, 317; Tatum, 312; Prairieview, 239; Harmony, 230; Caprock, 222; Eunice, 228; and Knowles, 202.

The chief economic attraction of Lea is stock raising. The precipitation is usually sufficient to insure a good stand of grass. Dry farming is successful except in years when there is little rainfall as in 1912 and 1917. Irrigation can only be carried on by means of pumped wells, the water flow being between thirty-five and forty feet below the surface.

HIDALGO COUNTY CREATED FEBRUARY 25, 1919

Hidalgo County, probably named for the town of Guadalupe Hidalgo, near Mexico City, was created from the southern part of Grant on February 25, 1919. With the exception of the northwestern corner, which is drained by the Gila River, the county is an inland basin bordered on the north by the Pyramid Mountains and Steins Peak Range; on the east by the Hachita Mountains; and on the west by the Animas and the Peloncillo mountains. The streams flowing from the mountains disappear in sinks. Hidalgo has a longer border in common with Mexico than any other New Mexico county. The altitude ranges between 4,245 feet at Lordsburg and 10,000 feet in the mountains. The average annual precipitation at Lordsburg is nine inches, but in the mountains it increases to twenty inches. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Lordsburg is fifty degrees and during the months April to September, seventy-five degrees.

The Southern Pacific Railroad was constructed across the northern part of the region in 1881. During the early years of the twentieth century the El Paso and Southwestern Railroad was built across the center of the county to Douglas, Arizona. The Arizona and New Mexico Railroad was constructed at the same time, running diagonally across the northern section of the region from Hachita, through Lordsburg to Clifton, Arizona. The improved roads of the county consist of parts of the highways connecting Lordsburg with Silver City; Deming; and Douglas, Arizona.

KIVA IN CLIFF, BANDELIER NATIONAL MONUMENT

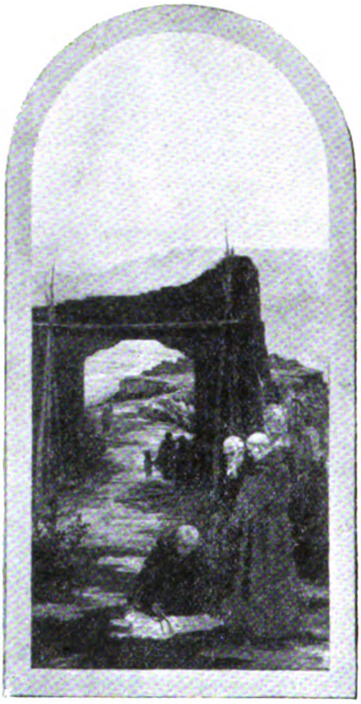


Photo by Museum Staff.

BUILDING OF THE NEW MEXICO MISSIONS—MURAL PAINTING BY CARLOS VIERRA IN MUSEUM AUDITORIUM

The rank of Hidalgo among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, twenty-eighth; in area, eighteenth; in number of people to the square mile, twenty-third; in total assessed valuation, twenty-first; in valuation of town property, twenty-fourth; in valuation of farms, thirtieth; in valuation of livestock, nineteenth; in area of irrigated lands, twenty-fourth; in number of pupils, twenty-ninth; and in number of teachers, twenty-eighth.

The population of Hidalgo in 1920 was 4,338. Lordsburg, the county seat and the only incorporated town, had 1,450 people in 1920. The precincts having more than 200 people in 1920 were: Valedon, 1,470; Virden, 491; Steins, 294; Rodeo, 267; and Animas, 230.

The Coronado National Forest, which lies chiefly in Arizona, has one division amounting to 125,352 acres in Hidalgo County. The principal economic attractions of Hidalgo are stock raising and mining.

CATRON COUNTY CREATED FEBRUARY 25, 1921

Catron County, named for former United States Senator Thomas B. Catron, was organized from the western half of Socorro on February 25, 1921. The southeastern part is drained southward by the mountain streams forming the Gila River. The southwestern and the western section is drained by the San Francisco River which flows southward into the Gila River. The northeastern part of the county has a number of streams that flow into sinks. The region is completely covered by the Mogollon mountain mass. The Datil Mountains extend from east to west across the area slightly north of the center. The Black Range occupies the southeastern section. Between the Gila Valley and the San Francisco Valley are the Mogollon and the Tularosa Range. West of the San Francisco Valley, the San Francisco Range is the chief body of mountains. The altitude ranges from 6,686 feet at Aragon to 11,000 feet in the mountains. The average annual precipitation at Aragon is fourteen inches, but in the mountains it is much larger. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Aragon is thirty-seven degrees and during the months April to September, sixty degrees.

Catron and Lea are the only counties which have no railroads. The principal improved highway runs across the northern part of the region from Datil to Springerville, Arizona. Parts of the roads from Reserve to Datil and Reserve to Glenwood have been graded.

The rank of Catron among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, twenty-ninth; in area, second; in number of people to the square mile, thirty-first; in total assessed valuation of property, twenty-ninth; in valuation of town property, sixteenth; in valuation of farms, thirty-first; in valuation of livestock, third; in area of irrigated lands, thirty-first; in number of pupils, thirty-first; and in number of teachers, thirty-first.

The population of Catron can be estimated at 4,000, the total vote cast in the 1922 election being 1,247. The Town of Reserve, the county seat, had 184 people in 1920. The precincts having more than 200 people in 1920 were: Quemado, 567; Aragon, 494; Mogollon, 482; Datil, 481; and Luna, 224.

More than two million acres of Catron is included in the Datil and the Gila National Forest. The area not included comprises the Plains of San Augustine, an arid, treeless plain; and the northwestern section. The Datil National Forest in the county has an area of 1,741,007 acres. The Gila National Forest in Catron amounts to 507,038 acres.

Lumbering, mining, hunting, fishing and stock raising are the principal attractions of Catron. The anthropologist finds in the San Francisco Valley and in the Gila Valley numerous Pueblo ruins and artifacts that are similar but different from those of Zuñi and the Rio Grande Pueblos.

HARDING COUNTY CREATED MARCH 4, 1921

Harding County, named for former President Harding, was created from parts of Mora and Union counties on March 4, 1921. The region is drained by Ute Creek which flows southward into the Canadian River, with the exception of the western part where small streams flow into the Canadian River. The altitude varies between 4,000 and 6,000 feet, it being 4,700 feet at Albert. The average annual precipitation at Albert is fifteen inches. During the months October to March, inclusive, the mean temperature at Albert is forty-four degrees and during the months April to September, seventy degrees.

The Dawson Railway, which has recently become a part of the Southern Pacific System, runs from south to north across the western section of the county. The improved roads consist of parts of the one running from Mosquero to Logan and of the one from Mosquero to Clayton.

The rank of Harding among the counties of New Mexico in 1921 was as follows: in population, twenty-sixth; in area, twenty-eighth; in number of people to the square mile, twenty-fourth; in total assessed valuation of property, twenty-fifth; in valuation of town property, twenty-seventh; in valuation of farms, tenth; in valuation of livestock, twenty-third; in area of irrigated lands, twenty-ninth; in number of pupils, twenty-sixth, and in number of teachers, twenty-seventh.

The population of Harding can be estimated at 6,000, the total vote cast at the 1922 election being 2,028. Mosquero, the county seat, had 239 people in 1920. Roy, the only incorporated town, had a population of 1,133 in 1920. The precincts having more than 300 people in 1920 were: Mills, 876; Solano, 531; Gould, 387; and Bueyeros, 302.